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ABSTRACT

An overview of higher education in Korea is presented in the following chapters: (1) "Introduction" (about Korea, overview of Korean education, and structure of higher education in Korea); (2) "Development of Korean Higher Education" (Dynasties period, era of Japanese rule, post-liberation period); (3) "Aspects of Korean Higher Education" (governance and management; faculty and students; curriculum and instruction; finance, expenditure and facilities; teacher education, and internationalization of higher education); and (4) "Present Issues of and Future Prospect for Korean Higher Education" (major issues and problems; directions for reform, and policy tasks for development). Appendices list member institutions of the Korean Council for University Education and nine suggestions for supplementary reading. Nineteen tables and six figures illustrate information presented in the text. (KM)

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Korean Higher Education

Its Development, Aspects and Prospect

1988

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Korean Council for University Education

Korean Higher Education

Its Development, Aspects and Prospect

1988

Korean Council for University Education

PREFACE

It was only in 1982 that the Korean Council for University Education (KCUE) was established as a unique inter-institutional organization of 4 year colleges and universities. It was specially created in order to promote healthy development of higher education in Korea.

Internationalization and international cooperation in higher education have been important goals of the KCUE, and many foreigner have visited the council to seek information on, and to discuss the development of Korean higher education. The length of such visits is usually insufficient to discuss in depth on the historical development, present aspects, and future prospects of Korean higher education.

The Council has provided various available papers, reports, and other materials describing Korean higher education in English. We felt, however, the need of a book introducing Korean higher education in general, and this book was accordingly published to meet these practical needs of the KCUE.

The information contained in the book has been collected from reference sources mentioned in the appendix II. The organization of the book is framed from the perspective of the past development, present aspects, and future prospects of Korean higher education.

Although this book is not absolutely perfect, I believe that it will be a useful guide in the understanding of Korean higher education. Finally, I'd like to mention that preparation of this book was made possible through the efforts of the KCUE staff, and with editorial help from Ms. D. Jackson of the British Council.

In-suk Chang
Secretary General
Korean Council for University Education

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I. INTRODUCTION

It was only at the end of the 19th century that Korea, the land of morning calm, began to open to the western world. Since then the cenfucian culture lasting over a thousand years has been replaced by modern western culture, and the current school system was introduced into Korea after World War II.

The first part of this introductory chapter describes Korea ; it's land and people, language and culture, and government system. This introductory note outlines the brief Korean history, and it will help in understanding of the Korean education system which will be explained at the last part of this chapter.

1. About Korea

1) Land, People and Culture

The Korean peninsula is located in Northeast Asia, bordering Manchuria and Siberia in the north. To the west, Korea faces China across the Yellow Sea and to the south lies the Pacific Ocean. Whill to the east, the East Sea separates Korea from the Japanese archipelago (Fig. 1)).

Approximately 70% of the country is mountainous particulary throughout the north and along the east coast of the peninsula. So major agricultural r esources, including rice are found in the southeast plain of the peninsula.

The total area of the Korean peninsula is approximately 220,000 sq.km, which is about 85,000 sq.miles. So the Korean peninsula corresponds in size to the state of Minnesota or is a little smaller than Great Britain. The Republic of Korea occupies 45 percent of the Southern peninsula.

Ethnologically, Koreans are members of the Altaic family of races, which includes the Turkish, Mongolian and Tungusic peoples. When earlier waves of migrants entered the Korean peninsula at around the third millenium B.C., they drove the natives, called Paleosians north to Sakhalin, Lamchtka and to the Arctic region, while a few were assimilated with the new settlers.

Korean names almost all have three characters. The family name or the surname, is placed first, and a name identifying the generation, ordinarily the same for all male members of a chan, come in second or third place alternating with the given or personal name. Sometimes Koreans when writing their names in the Western or Roman alphabet invert the word order and place the family name last, as Westerners do. This can lead to confusion.

A good thing to bear in mind is that only a few family names cover the vast majority of all Koreans. If you see the names Kim, Lee, Park, Chang, Cho, Chung, Han, Koo, Im, Ko, Noh, Shin, Yoo, or Yoon, you can be fairly sure that it is the family name, whether it appears as the first or third word in sequence.

The Population of the Korean peninsula is approximately sixty million, of which about two thirds are living in the Republic of Korea. The population density of the Republic of Korea is among the five highest in the world, marking 408 persons per sq. km.

Figure 1-1. The Korean Peninsula

The spoken language of Korea is Korean and the written language is Hangul, which is the Korean phonetic alphabet.

Vowels / Consonants	ㅏ [a]	ㅑ [ya]	ㅓ [o]	ㅕ [yo]	ㅗ [o]	ㅛ [yo]	ㅜ [u]	ㅠ [yu]	ㅡ [u]	ㅣ [i]
ㄱ (k,g)	가	갸	거	겨	고	교	구	규	그	기
ㄴ (n)	나	냐	너	녀	노	뇨	누	뉴	느	니
ㄷ (t,d)	다	댜	더	뎌	도	됴	두	듀	드	디
ㄹ (r,l)	라	랴	러	려	로	료	루	류	르	리
ㅁ (m)	마	먀	머	며	모	묘	무	뮤	므	미
ㅂ (p,b)	바	뱌	버	벼	보	뵤	부	뷰	브	비
ㅅ (s,sh)	사	샤	서	셔	소	쇼	수	슈	스	시
ㅇ (Ø)	아	야	어	여	오	요	우	유	으	이
ㅈ (ch,j)	자	쟈	저	져	조	죠	주	쥬	즈	지
ㅊ (ch')	차	챠	처	쳐	초	쵸	추	츄	츠	치
ㅋ (k')	카	캬	커	켜	코	쿄	쿠	큐	크	키
ㅌ (t')	타	탸	터	텨	토	툐	투	튜	트	티
ㅍ (p')	파	퍄	퍼	펴	포	표	푸	퓨	프	피
ㅎ (h)	하	햐	허	혀	호	효	후	휴	흐	히

Figure 1-2. The Korean Alphabet

For a long time Koreans used Chinese Letters for writing. In the 15th century, however, King Sejong(1399-1450) with the aid of court scholars invented an ideal phonetic system of writing to transcribe the Korean language. Hangul is regarded as the most original and yet the most scientific phonetic writing system in the world(Fig. 1-2).

2) History in Brief

Beginning of History and the Three Kingdom Period : The Tan-Gun is said to have founded the ancient Choson in 2333 B.C. The ancient Koreans are believed to have first lived as clans in small groups, and as the clans increased in number, they formed tribal groups among themselves. In the course of time, these tribal groups established small tribal states by means of alliances. Finally, the smaller states formed themselves into three larger states which developed into the Three Kingdoms of Koguryo, Paekche and Silla.

Of the three kingdoms, Koguryo which occupied the northern part of Korean peninsula confronting China, was the first to receive Buddhism and Confucianism from China. Buddhism was officially recognized as the state religion of Koguryo in 372 A.D.. The Paekche Kingdom, for geopolitical reasons, is believed to have exerted a powerful influence on the forming of Japanese culture during the 4th and 5th centuries. Competition among the three kingdoms was ended with a unified Korean Kingdom by the SILLA in 676 A.D.. The country has since then been characterized by a single race, a single language, a common culture, and no identifiable minority group.

To be sure, the Silla Kingdom did not remain undisturbed. About the year 900 A.D., unified Silla itself disintegrated because of warring factions, and parts of Paekche, Koguryo and Silla formed a new triangle of rivalry. A reunification followed later in 918 A.D., credited to Wang Kon, the founder in 918 A.D. of a dynasty that came to be known as the Koguryo Dynasty. The name Korea itself is derived from Koguryo.

The Dynasties of Koryo and Yi : The KORYO kingdom had enjoyed a

relatively peaceful existence until it was invaded by the Mongols in 1231 A.D. After that the Koryo court was obliged to marry its kings to Mongol princesses, and pay an annual tribute to the Mongol Emperor in Peking. This was the situation until the Mongols were driven out of China in 1368. Taking advantage of the turbulent ups-and-downs of the old and new Dynasties in China, Yi Song-gae, one of the leading Koguryo generals, established himself as king of Koryo in 1392 A.D, thereby starting the Yi Dynasty.

Yi moved the capital from Kaesong to Seoul, then called Hanyang, attempting to get away from the influence of Buddhist monks who were strongly established in Kaesong. The Yi dynasty lasted for about half a millenium, until it was annexed to Japan in 1910, despite some internal dissensions among the contenders to the throne and occasional external threat from Japane and China.

Japanese Colonial Rule : The Western foreign powers penetrated Korea during the later part of the 19th century, eying Korea's natural resources and its rich harvest of rice production. The head of the Korean Kingdom at that time was greatly against foreign influence, but Korea could not help signing treaties of friendship and commerce, first with Japan in 1876, followed by the U.S.A. in 1882, Britain and Germany in 1883, Italy and Russia in 1884, and France in 1886.

The Japanese made long and careful preparations for the annexation of Korea, forcing the latter to submit to a new treaty and going so far as to dictate the terms of a new Constitution. Thereafter, meekly but resentfully, the Korean government carried out the Japanese-dictated reforms. Having won the wars with China and Russia, both fought entirely on Korean soil in 1894 - 1895 and 1904 respectively , Japanese control over the country was firmly established. In 1910, Japan abandoned the pretence tha Korea was a protectorate, and declared it a be colony in order to legitimize the total exploitation of the country. Throughout the period of Japanese rule, 1910 - 1945, the Koreans demonstrated several times against the ruthless police surveillance of the Japanese.

Post Liberation : In 1945, at the end of World War II, arrangements were made for the Soviet Union to accept the surrender of the Japanese in the northern part of Korea and for the United States to accept the surrender in the southern part. The United Nations requested that a national election for the Korean people take place across the total peninsula to establish a single government for the country. This election took place south of the 38th parallel under the direction of the United Nations; north of the Parallel, however, the Soviet Union did not allow an election to take place. Thus, the peninsula was divided along the 38th parallel, with the northern part under the influence of the Soviet Union and the southern part under the influence of the United States.

North Korea invaded South Korea on June 25, 1950. Sixteen nations fought in Korea under the flag of the United Nations to assist in the defense of the Republic of Korea. This conflict completely devastated the peninsula and ended in 1953 in a cease-fire with the country divided north and south by the demilitarized zone (DMZ) which generally follows the 38th parallel. Once more in its history Korea was divided by foreign powers against the Korean people's strong desire for unification.

Since the korean War, some political events of great significance in the South have taken place, which in the end have resulted in the inauguration of the 6th Republic as of February 25, 1988. Until the inauguration of the 6th Republic, with the exception of a short spell of civilian rule, the military had taken over, and held the reins of government.

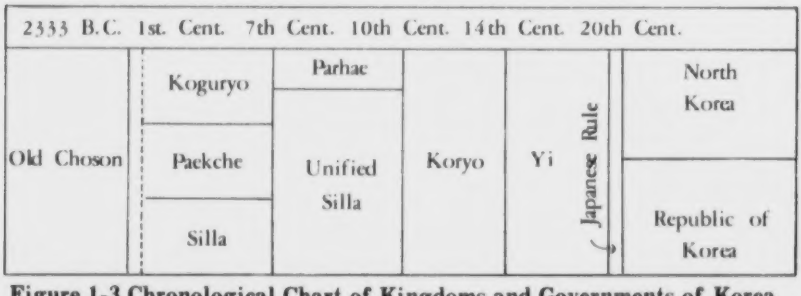


Figure 1-3 Chronological Chart of Kingdoms and Governments of Korea

3) Government

Government System : The modern democratic political system in the Republic of Korea was introduced at the end of World War II. Throughout most of its history, the Korean political system centered on an absolute monarchy in which the king had ultimate decision-making power in administrative, legislative and judicial affairs. During the Japanese colonization, 1910 to 1945, control was centralized and absolute.

After World War II, from 1945 to 1948, the U.S. military served as a transition government. This introduced western democratic ideology and democratic political institutions to the Korean people. In 1948 South Korea became independent and the first democratic constitution was promulgated. Since then the Constitution has been amended six times. Thef undamental democratic principles enumerated in the Constitution, However, remain intact.

Korea has a presidential system of governmnt with a unicameral legislature called the National Assembly, and a judicial branch. The president is, nevertheless, the apex of the government, the head of the state, the chief executive, and ruling party leader, and is elected by direct popular vote for a single 5-year term.

Since Korea has a unitary central system of government, the provincial and city governments are not yet fully independent from the national government. The governors and mayors are appointed by the President.

The legislative power is vested in a unicameral National Assembly that is composed of 299 members. The members of the National Assembly are elected for four-year terms by popular universal election based on both territorial and proportional representations, two-thirds by direct popular vote and the remaining one-third by proportional representation. The one-third proportional representation allows a number of interest group to be represented in the National Assembly. This remaining one-third is selected by the party members on a proportional basis dependent upon ratio of territorial representatives secured by the popular vote.

The chief function of the National Assembly is lawmaking. It also, how-

ever, exercises power to oversee the administration. The members of the National Assembly serve for four years, and the 13th National Assembly began its term effective as of June 1988.

Judicial power is vested in independent courts. Korea has three levels of court : the Supreme Court, appellate courts, and district courts which include branch courts. The Supreme Court is empowered to make final judicial decisions and also has the power of judicial review. The Chief Justice is appointed by the President with an approval of the National Assembly and serves for no more than one six-year term. All other supreme court justices are also appointed by the President and serve for six years; they can, however, be reappointed.

Educational Governance : All education for pre-school through tertiary levels in both the public and private sectors is under the control of the Ministry of Education. The Ministry also has responsibility for supervision and implementation of educational policy. Consequently, it has authority for carrying out ministerial decrees, for the direction and supervision of the educational budget, for administration and personnel, and authority regarding education as it relates to licensing and approval of the curriculum and its authorization in institutions. The Minister of Education is a member of the National Council of the President of Korea and participates in top level decisions within the central government. Also under the direction of the Ministry of Education are a number of institutes, associations, and educational research organizations.

Within each province and special city, a Board of Education, headed by the Superintendent, directs primary and secondary education, and manages other related educational programs in art, science, athletic and cultural activities in its local district. The Superintendent is a member of a local seven-member board. The Superintendent is recommended by the Board to the Ministry of Education, and then, upon the recommendation of the Ministry of Education, is appointed by the President.

2. Overview of Korean Education

1) Support and Control

The Ministry of Education : The Ministry of Education has the responsibility of administering matters related to education, sciences, and curricular materials at the national level.

The Ministry of Education consists of the Offices of Minister and Vice-Minister, under which, there are three Offices, five Bureaus, twenty-five Divisions and twenty-one Officers(Fig. 1-4).

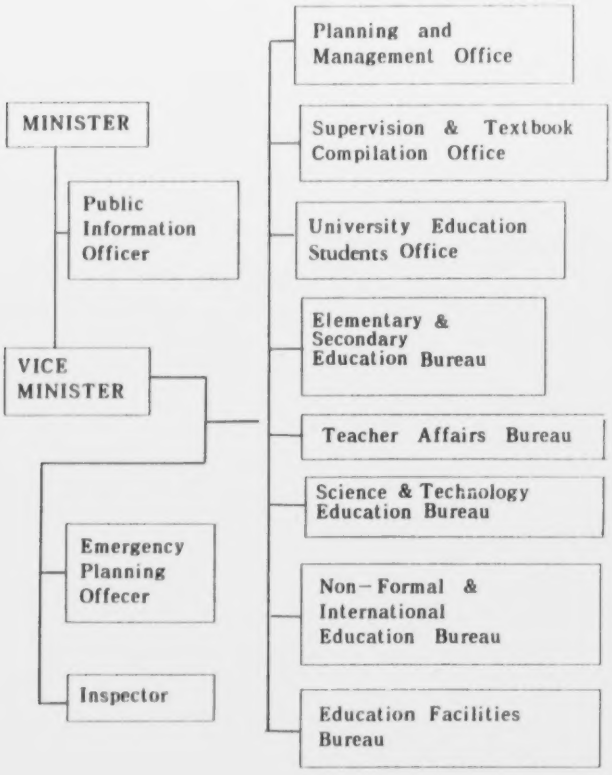


Figure 1-4 Organization of the Ministry of Education(Munkyo-Bu)

It is relevant to note here that the Ministry of Education does not regard itself as professionally self-sufficient, and that for the past few decades there has been a tradition of reliance on autonomous research institutes for undertaking studies of a strictly professional nature, and for making relevant input into the policies and programmes of the Ministry of Education. For example, on the primary and secondary, level the Ministry of Education has been mainly dependent on the Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI) ; on the level of higher education, the Korean Council for University Education (KCUE) is emerging as another professional advisory institute to influence the Ministry of Education in the formation of policies related to university education.

The Board of Education : A Board of Education consists of seven members : five representatives elected by the local assembly, the city mayor or the provincial governor, and the superintendent. Each board member serves for a renewable term of four years. The duty of chairmanship is borne either by the mayor or the provincial governor. The administrative function of the board of education is in the hands of the superintendent who is recommended by the board, approved by the Minister of Education, and appointed by the President of the Republic of Korea.

The superintendent serves for a renewable term of four years. The Board of Education determines local regulations on education and liberal arts; improves educational facilities; establishes budgets; maintains its properties and assets, and supervises all elementary, middle and high schools, civic schools, trade schools, kindergarten and special schools under its jurisdiction.

In accordance with the general province-self-governance system, which is planned to the effect in the middle of 1989, the provincial Board of Education is expected to be better empowered to execute the educational affairs of each province.

2) School System

Article 81 of the Education Law, which was promulgated in 1949 and amended in 1951, provides the basis for the establishment of the following

types of schools in order to enable all citizens to receive equal opportunities for education, regardless of their religion, sex, or socio-economic status:

1. Kindergartens ;
2. elementary, middle and high schools, and colleges ;
3. teachers' colleges, and college of education ;
4. junior vocational colleges, air and correspondence university, and the open college ;
5. trade schools and trade high schools ;
6. civic schools and civic high schools ;
7. special schools ;
8. miscellaneous schools.

These schools constitute the foundation of the education system on the 6-3-3-4 pattern in (Fig. 1-5).

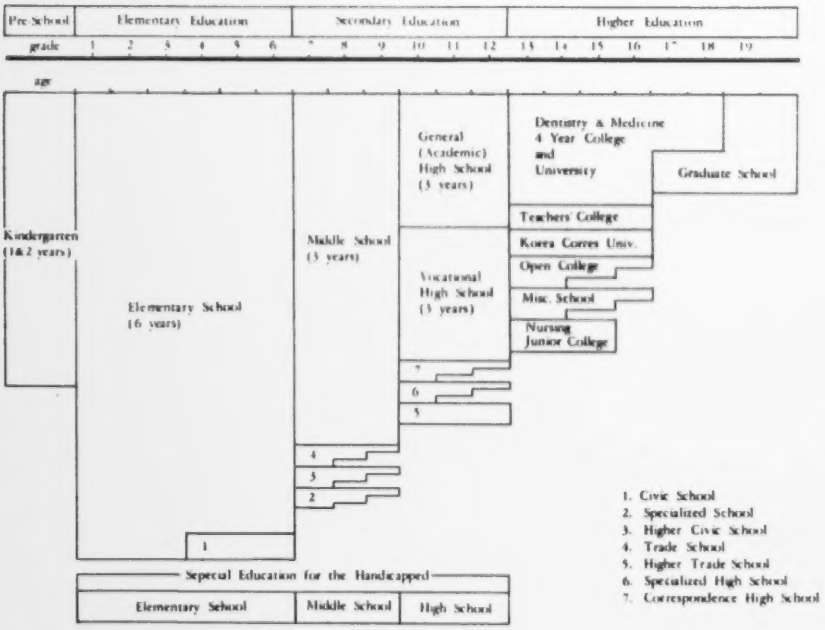


Figure 1-5 Current School System

What follows is a brief introduction the various institutions offering formal school education. Higher education institutions will be covered in a separate section.

Kindergarten : Kindergarten education in Korea goes back more than eighty years and has been predominantly in the hands of missionary groups and social groups. In 1962, the government established qualifications for Kindergarten faculty and, in 1969, set a national curriculum. The government reinforced its emphasis on Kindergarten education in 1977. Since that time Kindergarten enrolment has increased; at present, more than 30% of the eligible age group (four and five-year-olds) is enroled in kindergarten.

The number of kindergartens in public programmes in 1987 was 4,559, with 3,233 in private programmes. More students, however, have been enroled in the private kindergartens(223,709) than in public programmes (173,311).

Primary School : Primary eduction for children of six to twelve years old is compulsory and free of charge. Its goal is to provide basic skills and general education supportive of the Korean culture and essential to social living in a modern society. In excess of 99% of the eligible age group attends primary school. Primary education has expanded rapidly since 1945 but during the last few years the number of students in primary education has been decreasing due to a declining birthrate(Table 1.1).

Table 1-1 Expansion of Primary School Education, 1945 - 1987

Number \ Year	1945	1960	1970	1980	1987
School	2,834	4,496	5,961	6,487	6,531
Teacher(A)	19,729	61,695	101,095	119,064	130,142
Student(B) (in 1,000)	1,366	3,623	5,749	5,658	4,772
B/A	69	58	56	47	36

The objectives of primary education are to develop an understanding of the Korean language and science concepts, and teach basic skills of living, including social and moral ethics, quantitative relationships, artistic appreciation and skills, and good health habits.

Middle School : Education for students aged 12 to 15, is three years in length. Over 98% of all primary school graduates move on to junior high school(Table 1-2). Middle school education is free in rural areas but by the early 1990s it will be compulsory and free for all students. In 1969, entrance examinations for junior high school were discontinued and all applicants were accepted and allocated by lottery to the schools within their residential district.

Middel school education builds upon the foundation laid in primary school and is a continuation of that programme. The objectives of junior high school are to develop the skills and attitudes essential for citizenship in a democratic society, respect for work, the proper code of conduct, initial skills for future occupations, self-discipline, critical thinking, good health habits, and physical fitness.

Table 1-2 Expansion of Middle School, 1945-1987

Year / Number	1945	1960	1970	1980	1987
School	166	1,053	1,608	2,121	2,424
Teacher(A)	1,186	13,053	31,207	54,858	74,858
Student(B) (In 1,000)	81	529	1,319	2,472	2,658
B/A	68	40	42	45	35

High School : High school for students aged 15 to 18 is three years in length and optional. Tuition is required. Approximately 92% of all middle school graduates advance to high school. High schools fall into the following major divisions : general, vocational.

The curricula of these high schools expand and build on the middle school programmes.

In general high schools, students choose either a humanities or science course according to their preference and aptitude. A small number of students, however, who can't go on to college choose vocational courses. The main purpose of vocational high schools is to provide the students with practical experience. Prior to graduation students are required to have field experience for a period of one to three months. Vocational high schools include technical, agricultural, commercial, fishery and marine fields.

Consideration today is being given to schools in special fields such as arts and physical education high school, and science high school. The government has established science and physical education high schools. The students are recruited from all over the country. Because of their special talents, students may recieve a scholarship for tuition, room and board.

Table 1-3 The Expansion of High School Education, 1951 - 1987

Year / Number	1951	1960	1970	1980	1987
School	307	640	889	1,353	1,624
Teacher(A)	1,720	9,627	19,854	50,948	76,015
Student (in 1,000)	40	237	590	1,697	2,238
B/A	23	28	29	33	29

3) Curriculum and Instruction

School Curriculum : General standards for the curriculum are provided in the Education. These standards tend to be more specific and restrictive in elementary and secondary education ; At the level of higher education they point only to general objectives and broad principles. There are three kinds of regulatory standards relating to the content of education: educational objectives; time allocation for subject matters, and teaching materials, particularly text-books.

The basic objectives of education are closely linked to the basic philosophy

of the nation-state directed toward principles of liberal democracy and social justice. Thus the fullest development of individual personality, cultivation of the ability for the living, and promotion of the sense of civic responsibility, ultimately aimed at maximum service for the nation and mankind are considered as basic to all levels of education. There is a big gap, however, between theory and the practice.

Curriculum standards in terms of subjects and time allocation are available for elementary and secondary school. In addition to general subjects common to other countries, such peculiar subjects as anti-commmunism and morals and special activities are to be included in all elementary and secondary schools. In the middle school(Grades 7-9) vocational subjects should occupy 15% or more of the total curricular hours. Foreign languages are also required in all secondary schools. English is considered as the first foreign language and is compulsory, beginning with the 7th grade. In vocational high schools, vocational subjects generally occupy over 50% of the total curricular hours or units.

All text-books for elementary schools are published by the Ministry of Education. At the secondary level, text-books are either published by the Ministry of Education (e.g., English, mathematics, sciences, social studies, etc.) or approved by the Ministry of Education. Many text-books in vocational subjects are also published by the Ministry of Education, due to the scarcity of materials. Audio-visual materials and some other designated teaching materials are also to be approved by the administrative authorities for school use.

Instruction in Schools : Elementary and secondary schools in general must be in session at least 230 days in an academic year, which starts on March 1 and ends on the last day of February of the following year. An academic year will be divided into two semesters, generally followed by long winter and summer vacations. In higher education the minimum school days are 210 within the same general framework of the academic year. Generally classes meet 6 days a week, and school days tend to be long, particularly in the

upper grades of elementary school and all grades of secondary school.

Instruction is done in the Korean language in all schools. In addition to the traditional lecture method of instruction centred around explaination and recitation with greater emphasis upon text-books, diverse methods of instruction are gradually being introduced, such as the discussion method, the project method, the laboratory experimentation method, field practice and the like. Use of audio-visual aids, language laboratories and computers is limited to some of the better schools. Libraries are considered important, but many of them are quite inadequate and utilization of library sources for instruction is very limited, due to the lack of facilities and materials. Home assignments are rather heavy in most elementary and secondary schools. The chief method of evaluation is the paper-pencil test.

3. Structure of Higher Education in Korea

1) Statistics of Higher Education

There are seven Types of higher education institution in Korea, namely : 1) Colleges and Universities offering 4-year undergraduate programmes with the exception of six-year medical and dental colleges, 2) Teachers' Colleges, 3) Two-year Junior Colleges, 4) Air and Correspondence University, 5) Open Universities, 6) Miscellaneous Schools, and 7) Graduate Schools.

Under the Education Law and subsequent Presidential and Ministerial Decrees, all higher education institutes, whether national, public or private, come under the direct or indirect supervision of the Minister of Education. The Ministry of Education exercises control over such matters as student quotas, qualifications for the teaching staff, curriculum and degree requirements, general education courses and military training.

As of 1987, institutions of higher education numbered 475 : 119 two-year higher education institutions; 147 four-year institutions offering bachelor's degrees(Korea Air and Correspondence University, Open Universities and Miscellaneous Schools are included); 209 graduate schools with master's and doctorate programme.(Table 1-4)

Table 1-4 Statistical Overview of Higher Education Institutions

	Junior colleges	Air and Correspondance University	Open university	Miscellaneous schools	Teacher's colleges	Colleges and universities	Graduate schools	Total
Schools	119	1	6	26	11	103	209	475
Duration of Study Bachelors	(3) 2	5	4	4	4	4 (6)	–	–
Masters & Doctors	–	–	–	–	–	–	2 [3]	–
Teaching Staff	6,458	NA [1]	NA [2]	459	653	28,642	560	34,972
Bnrolment	259,898	146,990	39,833	21,568	20,616	989,503	70,364	1,548,772 (100,000)
Male (%)	162,597 (62.56)	85,605 (58.24)	35,491 (89.10)	15,778 (73.16)	7,755 (37.62)	727,054 (73.48)	56,405 (80.16)	1,090,685 (70.42)
Female (%)	97,301 (37,44)	61,385 (41.76)	4,342 (10.90)	5,790 (26.84)	12,861 (62.39)	262,449 (26.52)	13,959 (19.84)	458,087 (29,58)

NA [1] Air and Correspondence college has its own full-time teaching staff, but teaching staff of local institutions of higher education are appointed to give classroom lectures to students in the local areas concerned.

NA [2] Data not available

3) Actually quasi-bachelor's degrees are confered in this case.

2) Types of Higher Education Institution

Junior Colleges : There are 119 junior colleges, 16 national and 103 private. Junior college enrolment represents approximately 17% of the students involved in higher education. The fields of major technical interest to the students are the engineering technologies and nursing.

In the past, the two-year liberal arts junior college was not well received in Korea, and diminished in importance. Many former liberal arts junior colleges were the antecedents for some of the present four-year colleges and universities as well as for a number of junior vocational colleges. The junior college movement developed institutions that became junior teacher's colleges, junior technical colleges, and junior vocational colleges. In 1963, a five-year programme was developed for students in junior vocational colleges which included a three-year senior vocational high school programme and a two-year junior vocational college programme.

The junior colleges of today no longer include a senior high school segment. Their programmes are two years in length, with the exception of the fisheries/marine colleges which offer an additional six-month course for navigation practice, and the nursing programme which is three years in length.

Junior colleges offer programmes in these general categories : 1) commerce, 2) kindergarten education, 3) engineering/technical, e.g., agriculture, fisheries, civil and electronics technology, 4) liberal arts, 5) nursing and health careers, and 6) textiles and design. The majority of programmes for training kindergarten teachers is offered by junior colleges although the programme is also offered by a few four-year colleges and universities.

Colleges and Universities : There are twenty-two national, one municipal and eighty private colleges and universities, forming a total of 104 four-year colleges and universities.

Most of the Bachelor's degrees are offered in four-year colleges and universities in Korea.

In order to be classified as a university by the Ministry of Education, the institution must have three or more colleges, and at least one graduate school

which offers in-depth, research-oriented classes for graduate students. Four-year colleges and universities provide programmes leading to the bachelor's degree. A number of colleges and universities have programmes in medicine, oriental medicine, and dentistry. These programmes are six years in length. A four-year college may also have a graduate programme.

In general, one credit requires one hour of class attendance per week per semester. Laboratory work requires two hours per unit per week. Generally, the maximum credits that can be registered a semester are twenty-four and a minimum of 140 credits is required for graduation of the Bachelor course. All programmes are divided into required courses and electives. The required courses emphasize general education such as cultural history, ethics, Korean language, natural science, philosophy, and physical education. The curriculum for the bachelor's degree is divided into approximately three areas : one-third for required core courses, one-third for electives and one-third in the field of specialty. In most instances the writing of a dissertation or its equiqvalent is required.

Graduate Schools : Korean graduate schools are classified into two types, on the whole, in accordance with their functions and goals : professional graduate schools and general graduate schools. The professional graduate schools, which numbered 132 in 1987, provide instruction in professional affairs and serve as preparation for careers in the field of Education, business administration, public administration and so on. The academic degree which the professional graduate schools confer is the professional master's degree. The name used to designate the professional degree therefore, are stated as "Master of (Professional Field)".

General graduate schools, aiming at fostering creativity, initiative and leadership in specialized academic disciplines, numbered 77 colleges and universities as of 1987. General graduate programmes are more generally tailored to the individual student and the discipline, than those of professional graduate schools. Usually the general graduate schools confer as their first degree the Master of Art or Master of Science to those who meet the academic

standards through submission of a thesis, and to those whose graduation requirements are complete. Only the general graduate schools are authorized to judge dissertations and thereafter to confer doctorate degrees to eligible candidates in Korea. Students requesting admission to a graduate school must have a bachelor's degree or its equivalent from a college or university with approved standing.

Usually a minimum course-work of twenty-four credit hours in four semesters or two years, a comprehensive examination and an examination in one foreign language as well as a master's thesis are required to get a master's degree.

Students requesting admission to a doctoral program must have a master's degree or its equivalent, a scholarly background in the field of speciality with some demonstrated research experience, and recommendations from individuals in the master's degree field of speciality. Generally, a doctoral programme requires a minimum of sixty credits taken over three or more years. Students must pass a foreign language test to demonstrate an ability to comprehend and write in two foreign languages. They must also pass a comprehensive examination, complete the coursework with a 3.0 or B average or better, submit a dissertation and have it accepted, and pass an oral examination. An advisory committee is appointed at the doctoral level.

Teachers' Colleges : There are eleven primary teachers' colleges in Korea. They are national in their funding and control. These colleges are distributed across Korea by province and by major city.

In 1981, these eleven national junior teacher's colleges were changed to four-year institutions. Graduates from these colleges receive a bachelor's degree and certification to teach in primary schools. Students who are provided tuition, to attend national four-year teacher's colleges are obliged, upon graduation, to teach for at least four years in the primary schools to which they are assigned.

Korea Air and Correspondence University : The Korea Air and Correspondence University started as a junior college within Seoul National

University in 1972. In 1982, when it seperated from Seoul National University, it developed a five-year university programme offering a bachelor's degree. Now the Korea Air and Correspondence University operates as an independent institution.

The drop-out rate for the Korea Air and Correspondence University is approximately 70%. Te programme is rather rigorous and students who complete it demonstrate a high standard of academic excellence as compared with junior vocational college students.

Open colleges : The first open college was established in 1981. There are now six open colleges which offer five-year courses for bachelor's degrees.

Miscellaneous Shools : The category, Miscellaneous Schools, was established by the Ministry of Education to indicate institutions which are highly specialized and are not broadly diversified in their academic programme. Another interpretation for miscellaneous schools could be various schools that do not fall into the category a college or university. As a rule, these schools lack a sufficient liberal arts core or basic general education programmes which meet the standards for an accepted undergraduate college or university programme in Korea. They are predominantly theological or single purpose institutions.

Miscellaneous schools that have received Ministry of Education approval are four years in length and the students receive a diploma at the completion of their programme.

Students from these institutions may be accepted for graduate level work by colleges or universities if their specialized training is adequate preparation for graduate level studies in Korea.

3) The Governance of Higher Education

All institutions of higher eduation, public and private, must adhere to educational law and presidential and ministerial decrees. They are under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education has exercised control over qualifications of teaching staff, curriculum and degree

requirements, general education, college and university military training, faculty standards for universities and colleges, establishment of curricula, regulation for the establishment and closure of institutions, fiscal review, inspection of facilities, and the establishment of the overall official quota of students for each higher education institution.

Significant parts of these controls, however, are being decentralized recently enhancing autonomies of higher education in Korea.

The presidents of public or national univeities and colleges, for example, can be elected by the direct vote of faculty members or selected by the electorate board for the President's nominal appointment instead of the Education Minister's recommendation to the president.

Also in private universities and in privatfour-year colleges and junior colleges, the institution's Board of Trustees will nominate the president, or the faculty members elect the president, through a general vote. The individual is then appointed to the presidency by the Chairman of the Board of Trustees.

In the political structure of the Republic of Korea, the administrative structure of colleges and universities is more formal, and the college and university presidents exercise more power and control than is normally the case with their counterparts in colleges and universities in the United States.

II. DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher Education in Korea dates back to 372 A.D, but modern systems of higer learning, equivalent to those of universities in Western countries have a relatively short history of development. This period covers less than one hundred years since the modern system of higher education was restructured and reorganized after the nation's Independence from Japanese colonial occupation in 1945. Korean higher education therefore has really grown and developed during the last four decades.

Within such a short period of time it has achieved remarkable growth and gone through many policy changes and experimental phases. Since the early 1960's, higher education has been under the government's control and regulation. "Planned change and coordinated development" by the government has been a key instrument towards the development of higher education. Recently, this direction has been criticized by both in and outside higher education. The Presidential Commission of Educational Reform (PCER) which was established in 1985 has been very critical of the government's control and efficiency oriented policy framework. University autonomy was one of the key policy directions recommended by the PCER. The historical development of Korean higher education in three major stages will be briefly reviewed below.

1. Dynasties Period

1) Three Kingdom

The historical roots of higher education in Korea are two-fold : one is of Chinese tradition and the other, of European origin. The latter is, of course, the predominant as far as the present system of higher education is concerned, and is also the prevailing pattern throughout the world.

The first kind of formal higher education in Korea made its historical appearance in 372 A.D., when Tae Hak(the Great School) was established

after of the Chinese model of higher education. The establishment of Tae Hak was concurrent with the introduction of Buddhism from Ch'ien Ch'in China at the time of cultural advance. Tae Hak of Koguryo is known to be the second oldest higher educational institution in the Orient, second only to Oh Hak(Five Great Schools) of ancient Chou China, which dates back to around 3,000 years ago.

Another form of higher education, Kyoung Dang, was started in Koguryo. This was of private origin in contrast with the national or public origin of Tae Hak. Kyoung Dang was established somewhat later, probably in or soon after the 5th century. It was a boarding school where students were trained in both academic subjects and military skills.

Paekche, another kingdom to the south of Koguryo occupying the middle and southwestern part of the Korean peninsula, is also assumed to have had some form of higher education, although no written records are available. This is primarily based on two facts. First, Paekche is well known for its highly developed system of learning, as indicated by the case of In Wang, who went over to Japan in 285 to become a royal teacher serving as the earliest transmitter of Chinese characters and classics to Japan. Secondly, it is known that some students from Paekche were sent to Tang China for study along with others from Koguryo and Silla in 640.

Again little is known of the earlier period of Silla, another kingdom located to the south of Koguryo, to the east of Paekche, and in the southeastern part of the Korean peninsula. And yet it is quite probable that some form of higher education existed even in earlier days of the Silla Dynasty. Furthermore it is recorded in history that there were at least two positions of advanced degree holders equivalent to the master's degree of today, called Taesa in 651 under the reign of King Chinduk, to be identified with offices of Kook Hak, the national higher educational institution of later-day Silla.

Silla unified three kingdoms in the Korean peninsula under her own rule in 676, and it was soon after this unification of Korea, in 682 under the reign of King Shinmoon, that Silla established the first Kook Hak(national

college) according to the kown historical records. The institution was placed under the control and supervision of Ye Bu(the Department of Education) being an institution for training young men from the aristocracy for higher civil service.

Kook Hak in Silla, was completely geared to the Chinese pattern not only in objectives and functions, administration and control, but also in the faculty and student composition and the programs as well. The maximum length of study at Kook Hak was generally nine years, but exception was allowed for those with promising talents, who were permitted to advance to the status of Nama or Great Nama, which may be considered as equivalents to the non-degree graduate status and the master's level respectively.

In summary it can be seen that a kind of formal higher education was established in Korea beginning in the 4th century during the Three Kindom Period, and that higher education in this period was distinctly and overwhelmingly of the Chinese tradition under the influence of Chinese culture ín the Oriental world.

2) Koryo Dynasty Era, 918 - 1392

In the Koryo Dynasty Era Buddhisim ruled the spiritual world of Koreans, while Confucianism remained the dominant force regulating formal government oganizations and functions, including education.

The higher education institution in Koryo was named Kook Ja Kam, and was first established in 992. There followed a period of stagnation in the 11th century, primarily due to an involvement in wars and hostilities, and particularly because of frequent invasions made by the northern tribe of Yujin.

As national higher education began to stagnate at Kook Ja Kam, ambitious young men bent on the state examination for higher civil service began to head for private institutions. here were twelve renowned private institutions of higher learning, the most famous of which, was the one established by Chung Choi in 1053. His school was known as the Kuje School,(the School of Nine Halls) and students under his guidance being called the Disciples

of Master Choi.

National higher education however, became active again in the reign of Yejong, the 16th king of Koryo. He further expanded the facilities of Kook Ja Kam, after moving the site to the outskirts of Songdo, the capital city of Koryo, in 1117.

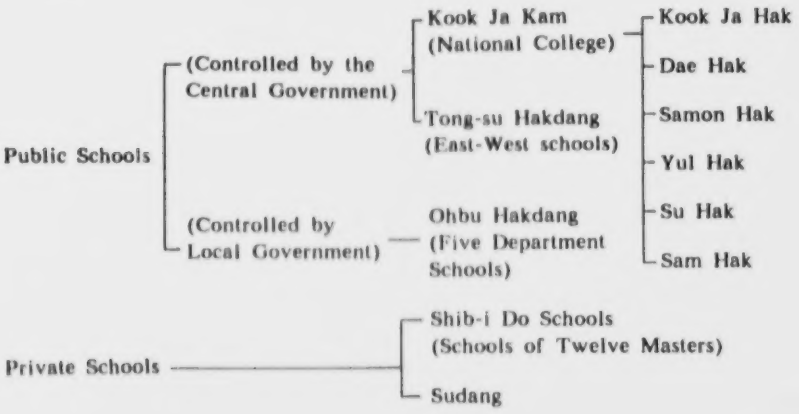


Figure 2-1 School System in the Koryo Dynasty Era(12th Century)

There were two kinds of higher educational institution in Koryo, of which the national institution of Kook Ja Kam was by far the most important, although there was a time when the private institutions were more prosperous (Figure 2-1). As a general rule all qualified applicants were to be admitted to Kook Ja Kam. The length of study was 9 years for Confucial studies and 7 years for the study of law.

3) Yi Dynasty Era, 1392 - 1910

Sung Kyun Kwan : The last kingdom of Korea, the Yi Dynasty, was established in 1392. The change of rule from Koryo to the Yi Dynasty was not so much a socio-cultural revolution, as a military revolution. Increasingly the new era was dominated by the Confucian culture not only in governmental

affairs but also in the general socio-cultural outlook. Confucianism with its emphasis upon traditional formalism, kotowism and family-oriented particularism, notwithstanding its original lofty ideals and moral principles, seems to have exerted a rather negative influence on Korean culture in general, and particularly on education.

The educational system in the Yi Dynasty was similar to that of Koryo. The national higher education institution during the Yi Dynasty was called Sung Kyun Kwan. The institution was first established in 1398 under King Taejo. With the establishment of Sung Kyun Kwan, the King made land-grants available to support the institution, built a food storage called Yang Hyun Ko on the campus.

Sung Kyun Kwan was primarily a training centre for the higher civil service as was its predecessor in Koryo. The administrative organization was composed of a chancellor, who served as advisor and supervisor, 2 vice-chancellors, a president, 2 vice-presidents, 7 administrative officers of various types, 13 librarians, 3 professors with doctoral titles, 3 associate professors, and 6 asistants in charge of academic and student affairs.

Students were selected among the Saengwons and Chinsas, successful candidates who had passed the preliminary civil service examination, upon the recommendation of their teachers. The students, whose quota was fixed at 200, lived in a dormitory called Tong-su Je(East-West Hall) or Yang Je (Water Hall). Student life at Sung Kyun Kwan was rather routine and highly regulated by rules of conduct and various regulations.

National higher education at Sung Kyun Kwan was limited to the privileged few from the upper class of the feudal society; it was limited to men, no formal educational provision being made for women ; it was devoted to Confucian studies of the orthodox line. To do justice to the national higher education of the day, however, it should be added that there were some promising practices, even before the introduction of modern higher education, such as : (1) use of the question and answer method in instruction, (2) establishment of a rather elaborate system of evaluation covering both

achievement and attendance, (3) a system of boarding school conducive to promotion of mutual understanding and development of character, (4) a form of self-government among students, and (5) an incentive system whereby students were encouraged study. As for private higher education this continued to play a secondary or supplementary role for some time, particularly when national higher education was rather low for one reason or another.

Clearly Sung Kyun Kwan dominated Korean higher education during the Yi Dynasty, but there was another development of even more importance that began to take root during this period. The early beginnings of modern higher education towards the end of the Yi Dynasty may be more significant than the previous development, for it is not only close to the present-day higher education, but more importantly it is essentially of the same character, the same kind of higher education as that of European origin.

Establishment of Modern Higher Education Institutions : Essentially there were three major streams of modern higher education, all starting around the turn of the present century under the influence of the great political and socio-cultural changes of the day.

The first stream of modern higher education was introduced into Korea through Western missionaries who established private higher learning institutions. The Ewha Hak Dang, later to be known as Ewha Womans University, was started in May, 1886 in a missionary's private house, with a single woman student of dubious character enrolled in class. The Paijai Hak Dang in Seoul, established by the Methodist Parent Board, was also a kind of educational institution combining secondary and higher educational functions, at least in the beginning. Another private school, Sungsil Hak Dang, established by the Methodist mission in 1897 developed into a higher educational institution. In fact it became the first higher educational institution of modern times to receive the official title of Dae Hak (college).

The second stream of modern higher education was the establishment of professional schools particularly geared to modern needs such as languages, medicine, telegraphy, industry,mining and agriculture. These schools were

mostly established by the government, but some were of private origin. The first of this kind was the English Language School established by a German.

Then in 1885, Kwang He Won (the House of Civilized Virtue) was established, first as a national organization, which in fact was the early beginning of medical education. In 1886 the Royal School was started as a government institution to teach the English language to students.

In 1891 a Japanese language school was opened in Seoul, and in 1894, concurrent with the general reform movement in government, a new order was promulgated regulating foreign language schools. In 1896 several foreign language schools, such as Russian, French, German and Chinese were opened. The Lawyers' Training Institute was opened in 1895. The year 1897 saw the establishment of the Postal Affairs School and the Electric Affairs School, and in 1889 the Kyungsung Professional School of Medicine and the Commercial and Industrial School were established, followed by the establishment of a Mining School in 1900. Then in 1906 a School of Agriculture and Forestry was started at Suwon near Seoul.

There was another stream of private higher education starting at the end of the Yi Dynasty. This was the establishment of a private higher learning institution of the modern type by a Korean national. The establishment of the Posung Chonmoon Hakkyo (Professional School) in 1905 heralded the later establishment of private higher educational institutions by Korean nationals after 1945.

2. Era of Japanese Rule

1) Initial Period, 1910 - 1919

The Educational Ordinance of 1911 provided that "the essential principle of education in Chosen shall be the making of loyal and good subjects by giving instruction on the basis of the Imperial Rescript on Education." Three kinds of education were to be available : (1) commo neducation at common schools(3 to 4 years) and higher common schools (4 years), (2) vocational education at vocational schools (2 to 3 years), and (3) professional education

at professional schools (3 to 4 years). The professional education, which was the only higher education available then, was to admit students aged 16 or above upon their graduation from the higher common schools, or equivalents thereof, aiming at "imparting knowledge and skills of higher branches of science and art". All provisions concerning the subjects to be taught, their standards, staff, textbook and tuition fee of the professional schools, as well as the lower schools, were to be decided by the Governor-General of Chosen Such was the legal basis of higher education, and because of the highly legalistic approach to administration it tended to dictate the operations of higher education to the minutest detail.

The government-sponsored professional schools which existed during this period were as follows. (1) the Kyongsung Professional School of Medicine, which was established in 1899 and received status approval 1916 ; (2) the Kyongsung Professional School of Engineering which was started in 1916, and (3) the Suwon Professional School of Agriculture and Forestry which was started in 1906 and fully recognized in 1918.

In addition, there were private higher educational institutions which had been established towards the end of the Yi Dynasty. These private institutions of higher learning were placed under much stricter government control beginning in 1915, when the Government Ordinance for Revisions in Regulations for Private Schools was promulgated. As the result of the new regulations the private higher learning institutions had to be authorized by the government, the subjects of study and their standards in private schools were to be fixed after the model of the provisions for government schools, with no additional subjects allowed and the teachers of private schools were to be "those well versed in the national(Japanese) language." The supplementary rules gave individual teachers five years, and to individual schools already holding permits, ten years of "grace" to conform to the regulations. Such provision would serve as a good ground for close supervision of private schools by government authorities. The exclusion of religious education, notwithstanding the ten-year grace, provoked a great deal of controversy among the

missionaries. Some missionaries chose to close schools rather than to give up religious instruction, but the government's intention was the "gradual elimination of all mission schools."

2) Intermediate Period, 1919 - 1936

In the wake of the national Independence Movement the Japanese Governor became aware of the fact that the Korean people with their long cultural traditions could not possibly be ruled by the sword alone. In accord with the reorientation of general policies in Korea, the Educational Ordinance was also drastically revised in 1922. Even prior to the revision of the Ordinance, following the Independence Movement, there had been some reforms in educational policies. The new Educational Ordinance provided for a new system of education, which included common schools (4 to 6 years), higher common schools(5 years), girls' higher common schools (3 to 5 years), normal schools(5 to 6 years), vocational schools(3 to 5 years), professional schools (3 to 4 years), and universities (2-year preparatory course plus 3-to-4 year main course). Thus, in place of the previous 11-12-year system of education, the 16-17-year system was introduced, and most important of all the legal foundation for university education was laid for the first time.

The most conspicuous development of higher education during this period was the establishment of a university in Korea. The formation of the Committee for Choson Imperial University Establishment in November, 1923 is believed to have been a countermeasure to check the establishment of a private university by Korean nationals advanced by the Promoters' Association for the Establishment of a People's University in March of the same year. In 1924 the 2-year preparatory course was started on May 1, 1926 the Kyoungsung(Keijo) Imperial University was established. It was started with two faculties ; the Faculty of Law and Literature, and the Faculty of Medicine. At the time of its creation there was some controversy as to whether a faculty of science and engineering should be established, but the prevailing argument was that "Koreans by nature are more disposed to the social sciences,

being little interested in natural sciences and engineering, and therefore there will be few applicants for studies in science and engineering, even if a department is to be established".

3) Final Period, 1936 - 1945

The last ten years of Japanese rule in Korea under the war conditions were hectic times for Koreans. Twice the Educational Ordinance was revised in order to fit it to acceleration of the "Japanization" policy in education. The first revision of the Ordinance in 1938 changed the names of Korean schools (except for professional schools) into the Japanese style and opened a way to stop the teaching of the Korean language in schools by making it an elective. The second revision during this period, the fourth of the whole period under Japanese rule, was made in 1943, which was an emergency measure under war conditions. The revision involved the following changes in higher education : (1) reduction of the student quota for the Faculty of Law and Literature at the Imperial University, (2) increased student quota for the Faculty of Science and Engineering, and (3) government-sponsored reorganization of the private professional schools geared to the needs of war times. As the war intensified, emergency measure training, civilian air defence work and other public works projects were introduced and finally students were forced to "volunteer" for the military service.

3. Post-Liberation Period

1) U.S. Military Government Period, 1945-1948

The status of higher education at the time of Korean Liberation from Japanese rule is shrouded with obscurity. According to the official statistics, there were 19 institutions of higher learning in the south with a total enrolment of 7,819 student and 1,490 faculty members.

When the United States Military Government took over in September, 1945, it took a series of significant steps to reorganize and expand higher education, acting upon the recommendations of the Korean Committees on Education

and the Council of Education. Two basic factors seemed to work for the expansion of higher education. First there was public pressure for expansion of educational opportunities on all levels, and particularly on the level of higher education. Many promotional associations for the establishment of higher education institutions sprang up "like mushrooms after rainfall," pushing for government authorization of such establishments. In this connection it must also be remembered that, in addition to the political freedom of the people, the hard facts of economic consideration in anticipation of land reform induced many landowners to invest in the establishment of higher educational institutions, which apparently seemed to gratify both their national conscience and personal interests. There was also the receptive attitude of the government authorities who were anxious to comply with the requests of the people.

Thus with the new expansionist philosophy of the policy makers matching public sentiment, many new institutions of higher learning were established and authorized by the government : some were reorganized into new institutions, and others were promoted to a higher status through government recognition. More specifically, the following developments were of great importance :

(1) Steps were taken to make gradual transition from the Japanese system to the new system as recommended by the subcommittee on Higher Education of the Council of Education.

(2) Seoul National University was establishe on August 22, 1946, having been reorganized from the former Kyonsung(Keijo) Imperial University and nine other government-sponsored professional schools.

(3) Three private universities, Korea Univerity, Ewha Womans University, and Chosun Christian University, were authorized by the US Army Goverment in Korea in 1946. More than so institutions of higher learning were established, reorganized or promoted to collegiate status.

(4) It was also during the U.S military government period that the overall patterns of college and university programmes were established, after a mixed

model of the Japanese tradition and the newly introduced American pattern. The programmes in colleges and universities were to consist of general education courses, required courses in the field of specialization, and electives.

(5) Serious problems in higher education were also found to be similar to many present-day problems. Such issues as shortage of competent staff, lack of library materials, inadequate facilities, low ability of students, money-making propensity of the management of private institutions, as well as student and faculty involvement in political affairs, were considered serious problems.

2) Grounding and Expansion Period, 1948 - 1961

At the time of the establishment of the Republic of Korea government there were, according to official sources, 4 universities (Seoul National, Korea, Ewha, Chosun Christian), 23 independent colleges(3 national, 4 public and 16 private), 4 junior colleges(all private) and 11 miscellaneous schools of collegiate standing, with an enrolment of 1,265 faculty members and 24,000 students.

In the earlier days of the First Republic (1948-1960), colleges and universities continued their growth in terms of student enrolment and the number of faculty staff. The total number of higher educational institutions, however, remained constant, although there were changes in the status of individual institutions. According to an available source, just before the outbreak of the Korean War there were 4 universities, 29 colleges, 2 junior colleges and 7 miscellaneous schools of higher education, with a total of 29,288 students and 2,049 faculty members.

The Korean War, 1950-1953, inflicted almost irrevocable damage upon faculty and administrative personnel, libraries, buildings and other facilities. To start with it completely paralyzed the whole operation of higher education. Despite initial setbacks, however, higher education continued in both refugee schools and in the so-called "Wartime Union College" ingeniously devised by the Minister of Education, and other educational educational leaders of

the time. In fact, strangely, it was during the wartime that Korean higher education expanded most vigorously. Under the lenient policies of the second and third Ministers of Education, a great number of higher educational institutions, both national and private, were established or authorized in their new status.

With the fourth Minister of Education (1954-1956), however, government policy was tightened slightly , beginning to swing to the other direction of checking the establishment of higher educational institutions. The Presidential Decree on the Establishment of College and University Standards, promulgated in 1955, was a significant landmark in this new direction of higher education policy. Efforts were made, not only to curb the expansion of higher educational institutions, but also to attempt to rearrange or reduce the number of existing institutions. Taken as a whole, the government efforts were not wholly successful, partly because of an inconsistency in policy direction and mainly because of the various pressures brought to bear upon the government. While expansion of new institutions was generally slowed down, existing institutions continued to grow in size; many colleges acquired the status of university; and above all, the enrolment of many private institutions continued to grow defying the government imposed student quotas. The general policy did not change very much even during the Second Republic (1960-1961). Meanwhile, criticism against the so-called "diploma mills" and demands for reappraisal of higher education were gradually mounting.

Some of the more specific developments in higher education during the period may be briefly summarized as follows:

(1) The Wartime Union colleges were established in such refugee centers as Pusan, Taegu, Kwangju, Chonju and Taejon.

(2) Early on in the war the idea was developed to have a representative national institution of higher learning in each province. This was based on the belief that higher education concentrated in Seoul should be dispersed throughout the country. A more direct cause, however, was the immediate

need to fill in the gap left by the abolition of Wartime Union Colleges, and to counterbalance a move among the people of local provinces to establish private educational institutions which was gaining momentum with increased political and social pressure.

(3) New private institutions of higher learning continued to come into existence. A so-called "higher education boom" was created, and although it has checked or slowed down every now and then, it has continued more or less without stopping.

(4) During the wartime and with the cessation of hostilities many of the United Nations agencies as well as the United States government and civilian organizations came to help in the reconstruction of Korean higher education.

(5) The Presidential Decree on the Establishment of College and University Standards (PDECUS) has made a significant impact upon the course of Korean higher education since its enactment in 1955. The PDECUS provided standards for teaching personnel and facilities as well as for the establishment of a Committee for the Investigation of Higher Education.

(6) The formation of the Hakdo Hokook Dan(Students Defence Corps) on April 20, 1949, was a significant event as it became the only official student organization for the next eleven years. Organized throughout the country both at secondary and higher levels of education, the Student Defence Corps engaged in various student movements and activities. It marked the beginning of student self-government under close supervision by the government and, on the institutional level, the faculty. The organization was abolished after the student revolution of 1960.

(7) The system of academic degree granting was established through the provisions of the Presidential Decree on Enforcement of the Education Law in 1952. It was in 1953 that the general standards for graduate schools, involving the student quota as well as the faculty quota, were established by the Mininstry of Education.

(8) The Educational Public Officials Law, applicable to national and public institutions, was promulgated on April 18, 1953, providing national standards

for faculty personnel on such matters as qualifications, appointments, salaries, in-service study, duty performance, security of positions, disciplining and appealing. Moreover, certain standards(e.g., qualification standards) were made applicable later by the Private School Law of 1963 to the faculties of private institutions.

(9) The UNESCO-UNKRA Education Planning Mission to Korea in 1952 undertook an extensive survey on education for a period of three months and made a series of recommendations for the improvement of Korean education.

Another report by a group of foreign experts on Korean national higher education was made public in 1960, based on an extensive survey conducted from 1959-1960.

These two reports made important recommendations for the improvement of Korean higher education, but not all of the recommended changes were realized.

(10) The Student Revolution on April 19, 1960, was a significant event in the historical development of higher education in Korea, not so much because it resulted in the overthrowing of the ruling government, as because it brought forth a chance to recognize the importance of students and the need for guidance of their activities. The creation of student guidance centres and greater emphasis upon student self-government as well as student welface services in recent years may well be considered as the direct products of the traumatic experience of the student revolution and the subsequent student activities in and outside the campus. It is also to be noted that the year leaching up to the Student Revolution of 1960 saw a number of open disputes in Korean colleges and universities. By late 1960 over 30 institutions of higher learning were involved in internal disputes, disrupting the development of the institutions concerned at least temporarily.

3) Government - Controlled Experiment Period, 1960's~1970's

In 1961 the military coup overthrew the government and the new regime passed many drastic measures. Resulted in higher education under government's

control and regulation. This period of external control of higher education could be divided into two stages: The first period (1961-early 1970's) marked the government's direct control and institutionalization of various regulations. The second period covers the early 1970's to the late 1970's.

Under the Military Regime, 1961-1963, higher education in Korea went through a series of radical reforms. Enforcement of the so-called "Rearrangment Plans" of higher education involved drastic changes in the status of the existing higher education institutions, causing a great deal of controversy and conflict of interest. Although the plans proved to be a failure in the final analysis, most of the reforms being nullified by the end of military rule, many valuable lessons were learned, and most important of all, a new direction in the policies of higher education began to take shape. A primarily at improving of the quality of higher education, steps were taken to provide, government research grants for professors, increased support for science and technology and even government grants to private institutions.

It was also during military rule that the system of higher education in Korea became much more diversified through the establishment of 2-year junior colleges of education for training elementary school teachers, and 5-year vocational higher professional schools for training advanced level technicians in various fields of vocation.

During the first period, governments intervened in the entrance examination system and began to authorize the size of enrolment quotas and the tuition level. National university entrance examination system was first implemented during this period. Final decisions on how many students could be admitted to each university were subject to the government's approval.

During the second period, the government began to formulate a comprehensive policy framework for the development of higher education. This framework emphasized two approaches : An indirect-control approach for better quality education, and a systematic planning approach to higher education. For the first approach, the government initiated the so-called "University Experimentation Program". This employed external criteria to

judge the quality of higher education and selectively support those institutions which met the external criteria, by either providing subsidies or allowing them more autonomy.

Colleges and universities were invited to submit applications for participation as pilot institutions, outlining in some detail their plans for incorporating the following three early reforms into their college operation beginning the first term, 1973.

(1) Gradual transformation of the current student quotas by individual departments into student quotas assigned to broad field, entire division, or colleges.

(2) eadjustment of credit requirements for graduation from the current 160 credits to 140 credits (similar to semester-credits system in the United States).

(3) Introduction and/or strengthening the use of the major and minor or double- major system to secure greater breadth of background as preparation for job placement.

The Ministry of Education agreed to seek or provide necessary authority or exemption from regulations, administrative support, and research subsidies to implement reforms in the pilot institutions while recognizing college autonomy in establishing programmes of general education, requirements for specific majors and minors, student guidance programmes, instructional methods and materials.

When the first stage of the Pilot Programme was successfully completed by 10 selected colleges, they were encouraged to undertake the second stage of the scheme. This featured an accelerated graduation system based on an individual ability to eliminate inefficiencies coming from a strict adherence to the eight semester system during the four year course.

The Korean government began to foster economic development planning from the early 1960's. As attention to be paid to balanced development among various sectors, this planning activity expanded its scope and included the education sector as one of the most important to national development. Since

then, a systematic planning approach to educational development has become common practice in the government's administration of education and manpower requirement approach was applied to planning of higher education sector. This manpower planning approach and some political concerns which consider seriously the side effects of expanding higher education resulted in very limited expansion of higher education. The rate of enrolment increase has been far behind the rates of increase for higher education applicants.

Consequently, competition for the entrance examination to universities has become very severe and has been aptly descibed as "Examination-hell" or "the disease of the high school 3rd grade". During the late 1970's, some educational problems attrancted social attention.

(1) high school had to gear their instruction towards preparing of the exams, rather than towards an all-round education.

(2) A considerable number of those who failed the exam tended to retake it and this repetition became accepted as a necessary evil.

(3) When re-sitting was discouraged, exam preparation saw another phenomenon that of intensive private tutoring. During that time there was a widespread social belief that one had to "sacrifice everything to have private tuition or be doomed to failure in the exam". This situation provided the context for another drastic policy change in the "July 30th Educational Reform" taken by the Fifth government in 1980.

4) Error and New Challenge Period, 1980's

By early 1980's, the pilot programme found universal adoption among all colleges and universities. The result, as it stands, is that a gigantic stride has been made toward a broad based education, with a self- generating reform effort built into the system of higher education: the shift from a department-based admission to a field-based admission, together with the emphasis on minor subjects, has helped to widen the perspective of students and tear down the traditional barriers among departments. Likewise, there has

been a noticeable change in teaching methods ; a greater variety of teaching methods are beginning to prevail over the traditional lecture-bound method.

The government's policy on higher education during the Fifth Republic (1981-1987) was initiated by the June 30th educational reform. The major higher education policy was the implementation of the educational reform and cancellation of the key policy measure as the new problem and resistance arise in implementation process.

The key policy measures included in the June 30th Educational Reform of 1980 were as follows :

(1) Unprecedented and Unprepared expansion of Enrollment Quota

- Increase in enrolment Quotas
- 30% of additional quotas to the increased admission quotas to be accepted, this additional enrolment to be eliminated by graducation (This policy is called "Graduation - Quota Policy".

(2) Changes in the system of Higher Educational Institutions

- Upgrade teacher's college status from two years to four years
- Upgrade Air and Correspondence University from two years to four years
- Upgrade Junior Technical Schools to Technical College Status.

(3) Reform of Entrance examination

- Abolish entrance exam by each college and university and replacing them with -UStatewide National Exam-u of High School Achievement Test.

(4) Government's tight control on Administration of University Education(Motivated by political causes).

The 1980's opened with a massive reform of the entrance examination, which had been the object of hot debate commensurate with its profound influence not only on higher education but also on secondary education This was accompanied by parallel policy measures to enlarge opportunities for higher education. The previous policy was more concerned with limiting admission by fixing a quota. The new policy allows for the admission of

students up to 30 percent over the graduation quota. This 30 percent surplus of is to be eliminated by the time the class graduates. The measure entirely changes the former notions of college education : previously, admission to a college or university guaranteed graduation, whether students studied hard or not. Now, the prime concern of working their way to graduation has become the source of motivation for study.

III. ASPECTS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

During the last two decades, the higher education system in Korea has expanded remarkably making an understanding of the current higher education system rather difficult. The expansion, however, has been planned and controlled by the strong central government, lacking diversity and autonomy of higher education.

Although there are some difference between national/public and private institutions and among universities, 4 year colleges and junior colleges, the governance, management, course structure, faculty and students of all higher education institutions are not so different from another.

Following the previous two chapters which deal with the past of Korean higher education, this chapter looks at several aspects of current Korean higher education such as governance and management, faculty and students, curriculum and instruction, finance and facilities, teacher education, and the internationalization of higher education.

1. Governance and Management

1) Legal Basis for Higher Education

The Constitution and Education Law provide the legal basis for education system on all levels. Article 29 of the Constitution mandates that "all citizens shall have the right to receive an equal education commensurate with their abilities". The Education Law provides the detailed legal basis for the operation and supervision of all education, including higher education. Chapter 5 of the Education Law includes provisions pertaining to higher education. Article 108 establishes the goal of higher education as "to search for truth, develop theories and applications which serve the needs of the nation and mankind, and produce personnel of leadership in all walks of life in the society.

The Education Law is detailed by a Presidential Decree which provides

guidelines and procedural formalities related to the provision of educational services and administrative support. It stipulates the qualification requirement for faculties, admission quotas of higher education institutions, degree conferring, duration of study, standard criteria for the establishment of colleges and universities, screening methods and procedures for managing academic affairs.

All national, public and private colleges and universities are under the direction and supervision of the Ministry of Education. It is necessary to obtain its approval before institutes of higher education are established or abolished, their departments of study recognized, student quotas assigned, or admissions procedures, curricula outlines determined, and admissions fee/tuition levels for national universities determined. This places a tremendous responsibility upon the Ministry of Education but at the same time also provides substantial leverage and power for introducing educational reforms at the government's initiative.

In Korean higher education there are very few differences among colleges and universities in terms of their administrative organizations, curricula, and personnel. The main reason for this kind of uniformity is a highly centralized educational system under the Ministry of Education. With the exception of Seoul National University, which has its own ordinance, all national universities are under the same ordinance. In other words, each national institution does not yet have its own "charter".

Private institutions are under the control of the Private School Law which is restrictive rather than autonomous. There are not, therefore, so many differences between national universities and private ones. Regardless of their specialties and liabilities, most institutions are wasting their energy in copying the leading institutions.

In recent years, there has been a noticeable trend toward institutions of higher education assuming a greater degree of autonomy in examination, curricular and system operation, tuition adjustment, and innovative programs.

2) Levels of Organization in Management

The mode of decision-making in relation to the governance of higher education institutions, varies a little among the types of institution. All higher education institutions, national, public and private, are subject to control and supervision by the Ministry of Education.

In the case of the four-year national universities, one can conceptualize the governance of universities in terms of four levels of decision-making bodies. Th first level of organization, which is the smallest unit of governance, is the department. Of course, the departments vary in size, consisting of 3-4 faculty members at the smallest to over 20 at the largest, assisted by a corresponding number of assistants. The decision-making in the department includes the approval of recruitment of faculty members, curriculum-making, and placement of staff to the courses, among others. It is worth noting here,that the department has the right to approve of the faculty members to be newly recruited. Even though this right is not legally endowed to the department, the conventional way of thinking in most of the national universities is that no new members will be recruited without the approval of the department.

The second level of organization is at the constituent colleges within the university. Each college has a dean nominated by the university president and appointed by the Minister of Education from its faculty members, to be in charge of inter-departmental coordination, allocation of budget within the college, and other administrative functions. As in the case of the departments, the colleges vary in size and complexity, so that it is very difficult to generalize. The mode of governance varies a great deal, depending on whether the college consists of many departments in diverse areas of study, or of a single department, in which case the governance is almost identical with the first departmental level. It may seem that the college exercises a broader range of control than the department, because obviously the college is at a higher level than the department, but generally this is not true.

The third level of the decision-making organization is represented by the president of the university. In private universities, this level of decision-making is often carried out by the board of trustees, but national universities do not have decision-making bodies, such as a board of trustees or faculty senate, so that this level of decision-making is left entirely to the president and his administrative staff. The presidents of national universities are recommended by each institution to the President of the country, for appointment, after being elected through a particular selection process in accordance with institutional practice.

Conventionally, the president of a university has been nominated from the professors of the university, but the regulations do not state any such restriction. In fact, there have been cases in which non-professors have been nominated as president. The presidents are to perform a broad range of duties in university governance.

However, one thing must be pointed out in relation to the president's role in university governance, which is that, even though the national universities do not have a board of trustees or faculty senate, most of them have the deans' meeting, and committee of academic affairs to advise on, or, if necessary control, the president's decision-making. The deans' meeting, though not entitled to any legal right, can exercise a considerable influence on the president's administrative duties. Any capable president will take pains to seek a consensus from the deans' meeting, and refrain from making decisions contrary to the will of the deans' meeting.

At the same level as the deans' meeting, most national universities rely on the function of the committee of personnel management. The committee, organized with the deans of the constituent colleges and a few professors from each college, makes decisions about the personnel management, such as recruitment and promotion of teaching staff, including assistants, and nomination of deans of the colleges. In this sense, the way is open for the professors to take part in personnel management.

One of the important items dealt with in decision-making on the presidential

account(general account) and the non-governmental fund account(Table 3-1)).

The government subsidy account comes from the National Treasury whereas the non-governmental fund consists of budgets of PTA as is shown in the student defense corps. The budget of PTA, which constitutes the mainstay of the non-governmental fund account, has as its financial source, membership fees paid by students. The PTA budget is mainly used to cover facilities and operational expenses, which are not met by the government subsidy. The budget includes experiment and practical training fees paid by students since 1977. With the inclusion, there is a little variation in PTA fees among various fields of study.

Table 3-1 Accounts of National Institutions of Higher Education

	Revenues		Expenditure
Government subsidy (General account)	Admission & tuition fees	General account revenues	Opertional expenses Personnel expenses, Supplies expenses Facility expenses
	Miscellaneous		
	Incomes by substitute expenses (Dissertation examination fee, Entrance examination fee)		Substitute expenses (Dissertation examination expenses, Entrance examination expenses)
Non-governmental fund	School support fees (Membership fee income) (Miscellaneous incomes)		Operating expenses of P.T.A. (facility & personnel expenses)
	Student association income		Expenses for student association (Expenses for holding various functions)

level is the planning and implementation of budgets. In the case of the national university, the president is assisted by the chief of the administrative bureau of the university, a government official nominated by the Ministry of Education. It can be said, therefore, that the budgeting of the university is entirely controlled by the government official nominated by the Ministry of Education. In fact, the role of administrative officials in university governance is rather important, and it is because of this bureaucratic system that the university administration often lacks necessary flexibility.

The dean of administrative affairs of the private university is appointed by the board of trustees and management of the budget is more flexible compared with national universities. It is not possible, however, to exclude the influence of the Ministry of Education in the matter of university governance. This is especially true in the case of national universities, where the governance is directly controlled by the Ministry in every aspect. This represents the fourth level of decision-making in relation to university governance.

3) Budget Management

The procedures of budget management in institutions vary with the type of establishment. The national institutions are subject to the same regulations as the other national organizations in the overall management of budget including compilation and execution. In the case of private institutions, the school budget, which is compiled by the university president, is determined by the university finance committee. The university president is responsible for execution of the budget and settlement of accounts.

The Budget Accounting Law provides a legal basis for the budget of national institutions of higher education. It is prescribed by law that the budget of expenditures be organized in such a way as to set a limit on the maximum amount of monthly expenditure. Diversion of the budget for some unintended purpose is also prohibited in principle by the law. Accounts of national institutions of higher education are divided into the government subsidy

Table 3-2 Process of Budget Compilation

Guidelines on budget compilation (Minister of Education)	
University president	1. Requests deans or directors for the submission of budget estimates.
Deans or directors	1. Collects budgetary requests from departments. 2. Adjusts the requests. 3. Submits budget requests to university
University president Planning Office Planning & budget officer	1. Adds common expenses and head office expenses. 2. Adjusts budgetary requests and determines priority. 3. Analyze the budget execution of the previous year. 4. Draws up the budget request. 5. Reports to the executive meeting. 6. Reports to the deans' meeting.
Approval of budget draft by university president	1. Determines the final budget draft.
Presentation of the draft to Ministry of Education	
Revision of the draft by Ministry of Education	1. Revises budget contents including the size of budget.
Determination of budget Ministry of Education	1. Submits to minister of Economic Planning Board.

The budget of a university (government subsidy account) is determined after going through several processes(Table 3-2)).

Planning of the Ministry of Education's budget starts with the submission of project plans for the next year by the Minister to the Minister of Education by the end of March every year after deliberation by the Ministerial Council and approval by the President. Included in the guidelines are basic policy directions for financial management, general principles of and detailed guidelines on budget compilation, salary criteria for public officials, and other guidelines on budget compilation. Within the framework of budgetary planning guidelines prepared by the EPB, the Ministry of Education details guidelines for its subordinate agencies to prepare the budget. The subordinate organizations are to submit the budget estimates by the end of April in accordance with the guideline. Upon receipt of the budget estimates, the Ministry of Education deliberates the submitted budgets and makes necessary modifications before adopting them as its budget proposal to the Economic Planning Board. The EPB makes a thorough review of the budgets submitted by the Ministry and prepares a budget bill draft, which is subject to deliberation by the Ministerial Council and approval by the president. With the approval of the president, the budget draft is submitted to the National Assembly for deliberation at least 90 days prior to the beginning of a new fiscal year.

Like the government subsidy account, the non-governmental budget, which comprises budgets of PTA and student associations, undergoes a series of processes before it is determined. The PTA budget of revenues and expenditures is compiled by the university president in accordance with the PTA regulations and within the framework of the guidelines on the PTA management of national universities instructed by the Ministry of Education in January. Included in the guidelines are basic directions and detailed guidelines for the compilation of the PTA budget. Upon compilation of the budget, the university president submits it to the board of trustees for deliberation before the beginning of the new fiscal year.

As the universities and colleges are to follow uniform procedures in budget compilation, the head of an institution has limited authority in the process.

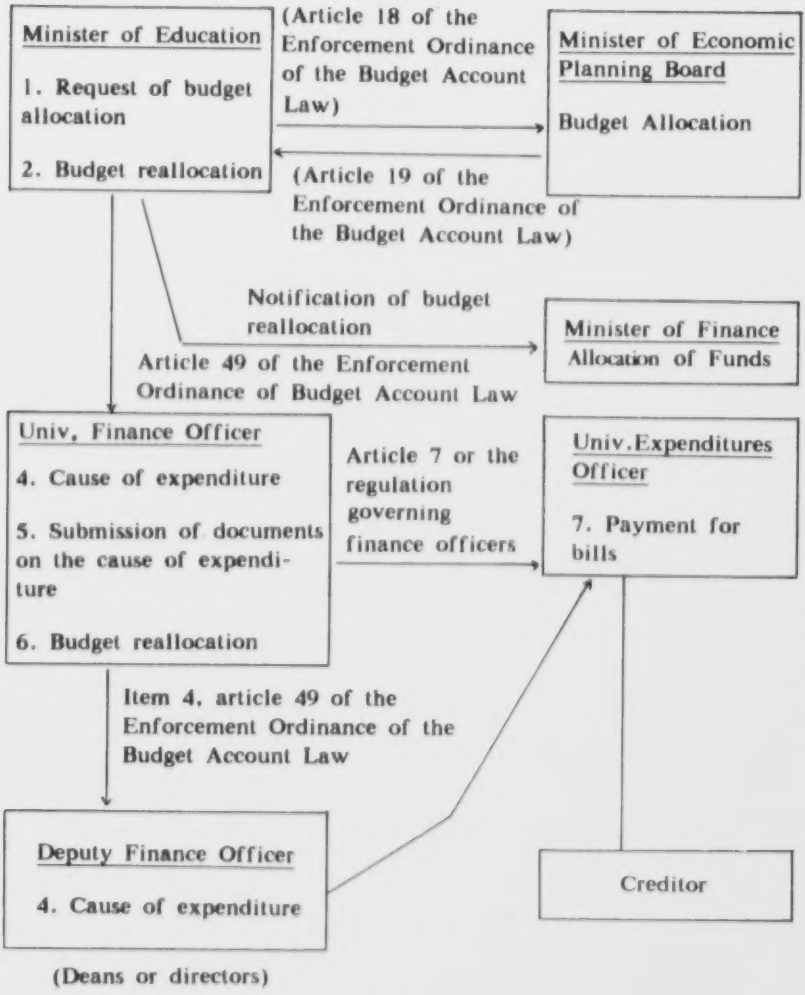
It is a general practice that the budget be compiled by the offices of Planning, Finance, or General Affairs. The integration or disintegration of the budget compilation and execution structure has much to do with the efficient management of the university financial and budgetary system. It is encouraged by pertinent laws that private institutions disintegrate the structure, whereas their national counterparts are recommended to adopt the integrated system.

As mentioned earlier, student tuition constitutes the largest proportion of the revenues of private institutions. The level of tuition is mostly determined by such factors as personnel expenses, operational expenses, and experiment and practical training expenses. Facility expenses, which determine the size of educational expenditure together with the current expenses, have nothing to do with the student tuition since they are borne by the school foundation.

Budget Execution : The budget is executed in order of occurrence of causes of expenditure, appropriation, and payment(Table 3-3).

The government subsidy budget is executed through competitive bids in principle. But it may be executed through a private contract in case the conditions for private contract as prescribed in the Enforcement Ordinance of Budget Accounting Law are met. In the case of the non-governmental budget, it is to be executed in accordance with the regulations on the Process of Budget Execution non-governmental fund management fo national universities and colleges and other pertinent legal provisions. As a result, there is little difference in the execution procedures between the governmental and non-governmental funds.

Table 3-3 Process of Budget Execution


Minister of Education
1. Request of budget allocation
2. Budget reallocation
(Article 18 of the Enforcement Ordinance of the Budget Account Law)
Minister of Economic Planning Board
Budget Allocation
(Article 19 of the Enforcement Ordinance of the Budget Account Law)
Notification of budget reallocation
Article 49 of the Enforcement Ordinance of Budget Account Law
Minister of Finance
Allocation of Funds
Univ, Finance Officer
4. Cause of expenditure
5. Submission of documents on the cause of expenditure
6. Budget reallocation
Article 7 or the regulation governing finance officers
Univ.Expenditures Officer
7. Payment for bills
Item 4, article 49 of the Enforcement Ordinance of the Budget Account Law
Deputy Finance Officer
4. Cause of expenditure
Creditor
(Deans or directors)

4) Educational Research and Academic Research Organization

For forty years, since Independence, Korea has actively undertaken research on ideologies, goals, theories, and methods of education for the purpose of both quantitative and qualitative improvements in all areas of education and for the promotion of scholarships. What follows are typical institutions or organizations which carry out educational research in Korea.

Educational Research Institutes Attached to Colleges and Universities : In Korea, the leading roles in educational research are assumed by colleges and universities, research institutes attached to colleges and universities, national and regional research institutes, and private research institutes. The research undertaken by colleges and universities and research institutes attached to colleges and universities(Table 3-4) is mostly academic in nature.

The expenditure of research institutes attached to colleges and universities is provided by a diverse source of funds: the national treasury; concerned institution's own sources of finance; and research grants provided by private firms.

Table 3-4 Number of Research Institutes in Colleges and Universities (1986)

Classification	Natural Science	Engineering	Agriculture	Medical Science & Pharma	Other Fields	Totale
National	48	24	24	19	9	124
Private	57	72	13	45	15	202
Total	105	96	37	64	24	326

The National institute of Educational Evaluation (NIEE) : NIEE is an organization exclusively in charge of educational evaluation at the national level. The Institute was established on August 12, 1985 under the Ministry of Education to contribute to the development of the national education system.

The major functions of the Institute are : management of various types of national-level examination; national evaluation of students' academic

achievements; research on methods of evaluation in education; support of evaluation activities conducted by individual schools and other educational organizations; and compilations and analyses of various types of statistical data and material on education.

The organization of the National Institute of Educational Evaluation consists of three departments, nine offices and three divisions, with 88 employees.

Table 3-5 Organization of NIEE

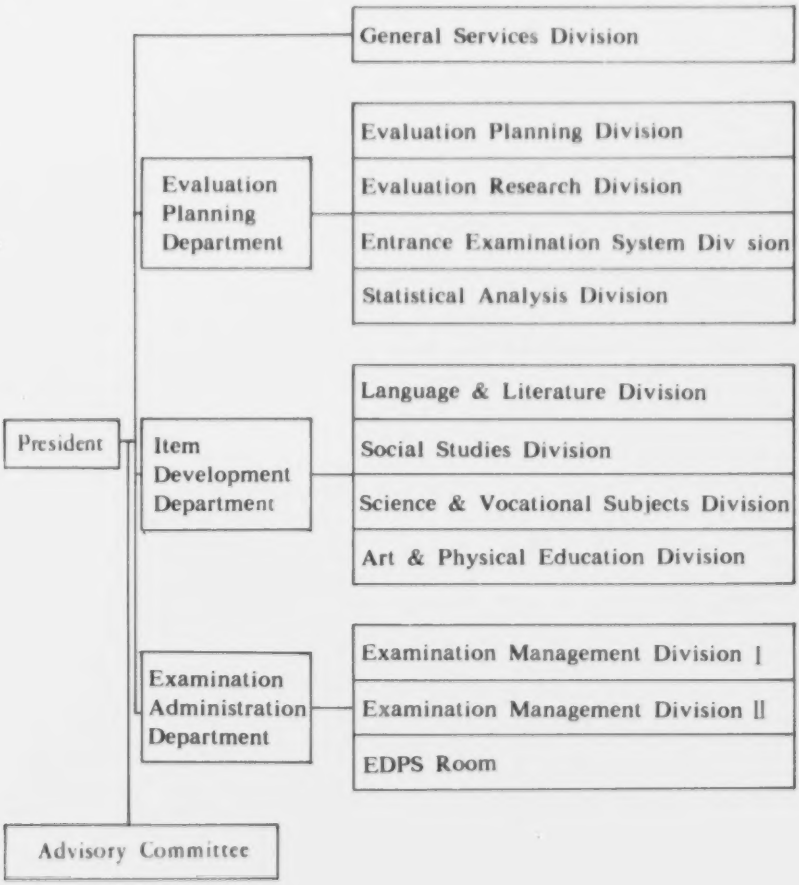
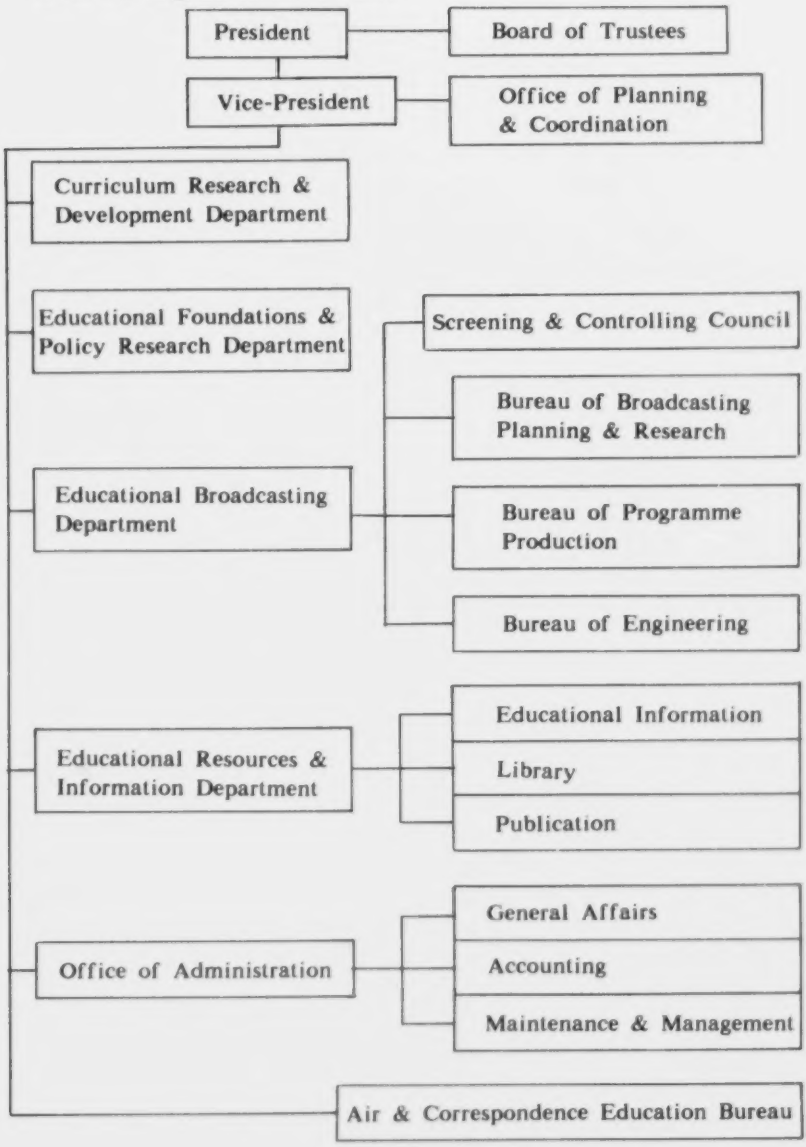


Table 3-6 Organization of KEDI



The Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI): The Korean Educational Development Institute is an independent, autonomous, and government-funded educational research and development organization established to carry out the following activities :

(1) undertake comprehensive and systematic research and development activities on educational goals, content, and methodology;

(2) assist the government in deciding its educational policies and in effecting a long-term development of education;

(3) produce TV and radio programmes and improve the effectiveness of teaching and learning by fully tapping the potential advantages of broadcasting media in the educational process;

(4) publish and disseminate significant findings of educational research and provide information services to those engaged in research and development activities and policy decision-marking processes;and

(5) promote international exchange of innovative experiences in the field of education.

The Korean Institute for Research in Behavioural Sciences (KIRBS) : The process of national development inherently accompanies various issues related to economic growth, manpower formation, and institutional and social development. All these development-related issues are fundamentally human issues. Thus, research, projects and services dealing with development issues require the basis of what behavioural science inquiries can offer. Recognizing such a need, leaders of the educational community have founded the privately-founded Korean Institute for Research in Behavioural Sciences, on September 14, 1967. The Institute began its operation as an independent and non-profit organization.

The purpose of the research institute was to contribute to social and national development by conducting scientific research on human problems.

For the twenty years of its existence, the Institute continued to develop, and accomplished conspicuous achievements in several fields. In particular the Institute focused its attention on conducting various types of research,

developing materials and providing field guidance, to raise the overall level of Korean education and to contribute to educational development.

Academic Research Organizations : Academic research activities encompassing a broad range of topics are undertaken by college and university professors, individual scholars and research specialists in various disciplines. The government grants research funds to college professors working in foreign or domestic institutions, or to academic organizations for research on particular subjects with potential of significant contribution to cultural or national development. The research fund granted by the government is provided by Article 160 of the Education Law. Such funds are intended to promote college or university education and to create a positive environment of educational or academic research.

The Korea Research Foundation : The Korea Research Foundation was founded in 1980, based on the Korea Research Foundation Promotion Law, to support and coordinate various types of academic research activity of the nation. The Foundation coordinates and supports various programmes, ranging from academic research and development, international exchange and cooperation, to information management, based on the plan constructed by the Ministry of Education for the integration of research activities. As its suborganizational structure,the Foundation has Research Assistance Division, International Cooperation Division, Academic Information Center and so on.

The Korean Council for University Education : The Korean Council for University Education is an organization composed of presidents of 115 colleges and universities around the nation. The Council conducts independent research for the firm development of college and university education in Korea. The areas of research activities conducted by the Council include : improvements in the higher education system, exchange of professors and academic information among institutions, and research and evaluation on the management fo academic affairs.

2. Faculty and Students

1) Quality and Promotion of Faculty

The Educational Public Officials Law of 1953 provides for the minimum legal qualifications of faculties in higher education. Provisions of faculty qualifications are applied to private institutions through the Private School Law. The basic minimum standards are set in terms and experience (Table 3-7). The actual standards, which exceed the legal standards, vary widely from institution to institution. Most universities and colleges regard the doctorate degre as a basic minimum qualification for instructorship. In order to recruit the best qualified teaching staff, Korean higher education institutions, national and private, have adopted the "open recruiting system." Through this system many well qualified scholars have found their jobs. On the school side, considerable faculty improvement has taken place since its adoption.

Table 3-7 Qualification Rcquirements for Faculty Members in Year

Classification	College graduate & equivalent		
	Research achievement	Teaching experience	Total
College professor	4	6	10
Associate professor of college or professor of junior college	3	4	7
Assistant professor of college or Associate professor of junior college	2	2	4
Full-time instructor of college or Assistant professor of junior college	2	1	3
Full-time instructor of junior college	2	0	2
Teaching Assistant	Those who graduated from an institution equivalent to or higher than the grade where one will be employed.		

Faculty members with a doctoral degree, or above, account for 3.1% in junior colleges and 34% in colleges and universities(Table 3-8). It is noteworthy that faculty members with a master's degree comprise the highest proportion.

Table 3-8 Instructional Staff by Degree Awarded

Classification	Junior colleges			Colleges, universities		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Doctor's degree	186 (3.8)	15 (1.0)	201 (3.1)	8,123 (37.3)	666 (15.5)	8,789 (33.7)
Master's degree	3,578 (73.2)	851 (56.3)	4,430 (69.2)	9,909 (45.5)	1,964 (45.8)	11,873 (45.6)
Bachelor's degree	606 (12.4)	196 (13.0)	802 (12.5)	3,360 (16.7)	1,630 (38.0)	5,260 (20.2)
Others	522 (10.7)	451 (29.8)	973 (15.2)	99 (0.5)	26 (0.6)	125 (0.5)
Total	4,893 (100.0)	1,513 (100.0)	5,406 (100.0)	21,761 (100.0)	4,286 (100.0)	26,047 (100.0)

In the assessment of promotion to a higher rank, both research achievements and teaching experience are taken into account. Even though it is stipulated that the periods of research and teaching are interchangable. It is common practice that research activities in the past two years as well as teaching experience are counted in consideration for promotion.

As for the minimum teaching experience required for promotion to a higher rank, it varies with each institution. Generally 2 years are required for promotion to the rank of assistant professor from full-time instructor, 4 years from assistant professor to associate professor and 5 years from associate professor to professor. Together with teaching experience, it is essential to fulfill research requirements to be promoted to a higher academic rank. Faculty

members are required to submit at least 2 research papers written within the previous 2 years or during the present rank as the minimum research requirement for promotion. Those who fail to be promoted to a higher academic rank within the prescribed period of time may remain at the same rank.

2) Faculty Development

Faculty Development has not been well established in Korean higher education but is now being increasingly stressed. In many institutions greater care is being exercised in faculty recruitment. The Ministry of Education has tried to attract Korean scholars abroad on the programme of the fifth IBRD Loan of Education, which was designed to support engineering and the basic sciences. The plan was to introduce science and technology from advanced countries and help the output of manpower with high technological capability. Four basic directions were undertaken. First, securing professors of engineering and basic sciences. Professors in regional colleges who wanted to establish graduate schools for engineering and basic sciences, and colleges with small financial capabilities were assisted. Specialists majoring in strategic technologies which would have a comparative advantage in international competition were preferred. A short-and long-term plan to attract professors from abroad was also established, and 100 teachers including 17 in 1981, 40 in 1982, and 43 in 1983 were induced to return at a cost of $859,000.

In addition to these efforts, Faculty seminars and other means of in-service training have been organized. In-service training for qualitative improvement of professors sponsored by KCUE was given at the Academy of Korean Studies to faculty members who had just returned from study abroad. Meetings of interested persons such as the Council for personnel related to ideology criticism education, seminars for chiefs in department of ethics, and summer training for professors of ethics have also been held. To promote further introduction of science, technology, and cultural knowledge from advanced countries and qualitative improvement of teaching staff and to deepen research activities of faculty members, the government began to send scholars abroad in 1978 at its own expense, and in 1980, the overseas dispatch of professors majoring

in engineering and business management was initiated under the IBRD loan project. One hundred professors benefit from the programme annually and so far a total of 1,000 professors have studied abroad for a period of one year.

3) Faculty Research

The research function in colleges and universities is being stressed. Since 1963 the Ministry of Education has been allocating research grants to individual professors, research institutes in colleges and universities and for specific joint projects. The research funds financed from the national budget have been increased constantly, almost doubling the amount each year, although it is still inadequate in terms of needs.

Individual institutions are also attempting to increase their budget for research from their own resources and to improve research facilities including libraries.

Since 1975, national universities have provided faculty members with research funds and this has yielded a quantitative achievement but not qualitative research. One faculty member published an average of 0.7 papers and 0.08 books a year, and one faculty received 560,000(US $700) a year for research activity in 1983. The total amount of research funds paid to faculty members in 1983 was 9,486,000(US $11,959,280), and the counterpart in 1975 when the policy began to be effective was 421,000,000(US $526,500). Suprisingly, the research funds increased 23 times during these 8 years. Besides, faculty members who were doctoral candidates received scholarship, and faculty members studying abroad also received full scholarships for one year. In short, faculty development in the latter part of 1970's received greatly increased financial support.

4) Selection of Students

The examination for entrance to colleges and universities in Korea is one of the most crucial issues in terms of its impact on the content and method

of education in secondary school and the complexity of problems concerned with it.

Any applicant for admission to a college or university is given equal Therefore, applications are invited through public announcement. A candidate for admission to college must have one of the following qualifications :

(1) Graduation from an accredited high school;

(2) Certification from the College Entrance Qualifying Examination (given once annually by the Ministry of Education) in case the applicant has no formal schooling;

(3) Graduation from a school recognized by the Minister of Education as equivalent to high school;

(4) Completion of twelve years of school education in a foreign country.

The entrance examination system for colleges and universities has undergone many changes. Until 1968, colleges and universities were authorized to select their own students on the basis of each applicant's score on the entrance examinations conducted by each college or university. From 1969 to 1979, based on the admission rules for college entrance, high school graduates successful in the Preliminary Examination for the College Entrance(PECE) were permitted to take the main examination for college entrance. The Educational Reform of 1980 replaced PECE with the Scholastic Achievement Examination for College Entrance (SAECE). Universities and Colleges selected their freshman class on the basis of the composite score of the SAECE, the high school GPA, and an essay test (from 1985 to 1987).

From 1988, the college entrance examination system began to allow applicants to select first the college of his/her choice before taking the examination. This is to replace the system in which the applicants first take the entrance examination and then select the preference of college he/she wishes to apply to for admission. The change in policy is intended to ease the problem of memory- oriented education which is evaluated simply by objective-type tests of students' academic abilities without any regard for

differences in individual aptitudes. The former examination system has also fanned the tendency to categorize colleges and universities into a rank of preference. The change in examination system also intended to extend the autonomy of individual institutions to select their own students. At the same time, the new policy attempts to promote the normalization of high school education and to induce students to choose the field of major appropriate to each of their own aptitudes.

Colleges and universities are categorized into two groups in terms of the date when they conduct interviews and performance tests for the final selection of applicants. The dates of the committee selection are arranged in such a way as to give those who fail to pass in group I a second opportunity for application in Group II. This system commends itself for an orderly intake of students but can not avoid criticism for perpetuating the hierarchical order of universities in terms of student quality.

5) Student Activities and Welfare

No university administrator can ignore the students' welfare and their demands. Korean campuses are not yet totally quiet. Some issues are political and social in nature, and some are internal problems such as the regulation of the student council, welfare facilities, and a "free" university press, etc.

As for political and social matters, there is very little room for university presidents and professors to settle those problems. Fortunately, most students are not so interested in those matters except very small minority groups who are radical and politically oriented.

As to internal matters, however, the president and faculties are eager to find ways and means of solving students' complaints. Usually, their demands are reasonable and therefore, workable in one way or another. In some cases, however, very serious situations have arisen. Very often, lack of understanding or misunderstanding on certain matters have been the cause of demonstrations, strikes, and many other actions. In such a case, kindly explanation or friendly dialogue between the two parties could solve those problems rather easily.

It is necessary for administrators to pay much more attention to campus communication in order to avoid unnecessary misunderstanding or lack of information among all collegians. The bigger the institution, the more difficult to communicate. Multiple measures for inter-communication therefore, have been sought.

The activities of the student council should be encouraged through friendly faculty guidance. To learn the demarcation of their demands through these experiences is, in fact, one of the most valuable forms of educations for the students.

Extra-curricular activities through the student association, student service corps or activity circles help students gain practical experience during their college life.

The student association (SA) is more active than any other student organization in Korea. Most students have membership of the SA of each college and university, and the individual SA's have became unionized nationwide in accordance with their purposes or location. The recent political movement of students in particular was led by the National Union of the SA.

Students are also engaged in various social service activities on a voluntary basis. Such activities are carried out under the auspices of the Student Service Corps, and their activities usually consist of visits to rural communities to help with harvesting, environmental improvement projects or, in the case of medical students, medical relief for farmers and fishermen.

These social activities, carried out chiefly by college students during their vacations, have contributed to narrowing the gap between urban and rural communities.

3. Curriculum and Instruction

1) Structure of Curriculum

The academic year begins on March 1 and ends at the end of February the next year. The first semester is from March 1 to August 31, and the second

semester from September 1 to the end of February. Each college or university is required to have at least 210 school days throughout the academic year and graduate schools at least 180 days.

There are two vacations every year. The summer vacation usually lasts for about 45 days during July and August, and the winter vacation for about 70 days, starting in December and ending at the end of February.

Satisfactory completion of each course will earn the student credit points which are normally computed at the rate of one point per class hour per week for one semester. One credit in laboratory work, practice or field training, however, requires at least two class hours per week for a semester. The required number of credits varies according to the course of study. Even though the average number of credits which the undergraduate student can earn for a semester is set at 18-21 credits, those students whose grade average in the previous semester was B or above may be allowed to earn up to 25 credits. One whose credits fall short of 15 credits may be subject to dismissal. The minimum credit requirement for graduation from the undergraduate course is 140 credits (180 credits for medicine and dentistry). Professional qualification course in education are provided for those who desire to secure a license for secondary school teaching, and credits so earned may be included in the total credit requirement. In 1984, a double-major system was adopted.

The undergraduate courses in Korea are four years in duration except for medical and dentistry colleges which require six-years of study. A university must have a minimum of three component colleges, of which at least one must be in the field of liberal arts and sciences or just a college of liberal arts. There are 104 colleges and universities which offer bachelor's degree in 25 fields or departments, namely : literature, theology, fine art, music, jurisprudence, political science, public administration, education, library science, economics, business administration, commerce, physical science, home economics, gymnastics, engineering, medicine, dentistry, oriental medicine, sanitation, nursing, pharmacology, agricultural science, veterinary medicine, and fisheries.

The curriculum of undergraduate programmes is divided into two types of study-general studies and specialization-each again divided into required courses and electives. It is compulsory to complete the required course for graduation, while elective courses are left to individual students to select in order for to broaden their academic background in fields of special interest. It is required that the general study course represents humanities, social sciences and natural sciences in a harmonious blend, but national ethics, Korean language, military training and physical education are essential. Regarding the major course, each student is allowed to take a maximum of two majors. When one major is taken, each student may take minor subjects exclusive of those included in the major.

The credits assigned to the elective courses are limited to less than one-third of the total credits required for graduation, and the general subjects are not to exceed one-third of the required course.

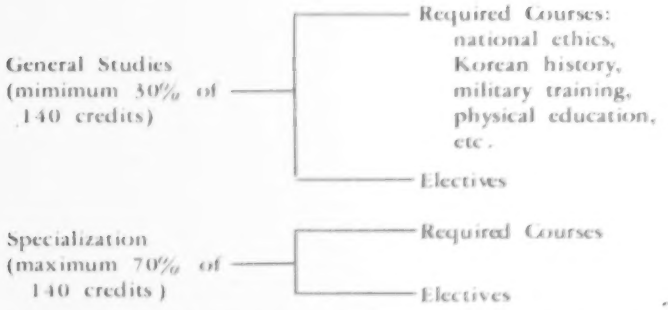
2) General Education Curriculum

The problem of the curriculum, relative to its structure and social relevance, has always been a focal point of controversy. The general curricular standards in terms of credit hours were 180 credits between 1945 and 1954, 160 credit hours since 1955, and 140 hours since 1973 in the pilot institutions. Transition from the 160-credit system to the 140-credit system, naturally having involved general curricular reorganization, was the central feature of higher education reform during the last decade. Curricular reorganization has continued to be a focus of reform and controversy in the 1980's. During the process the age-old problems of general education vs. specialized education, required courses vs. electives, the social relevance of the contents of respective courses, etc., has been brought in to the open, causing controversy among the respective academic disciplines and faculties.

There are two common standards applied to all colleges and universities. First, the follosing four subjects, national ethics, Korean history, military training and physical education are compulsory for all as part of the general

education programme, and secondly a minimum of 30%(Table 3-9) is to be allocated to general education courses.

Table 3-9 Undergraduate Curriculum



Since there is a wide range of choice over and above these minimum standards involving a great deal of institutional freedom, the matter of curricular organization and its relevance will long remain a source of controversy. Despite some healthy signs, such as interdisciplinary, inter-university and school-industry cooperation, a considerable degree of closed-doorness or Monroeism persists in blocking the way to progress. It is now hoped that the coming decade will witness great strides to be made in the promotion of curricular reform directed towards greater relevance, efficiency and cooperation. As for the curriculum of junior technical college, the present over-emphasis upon vocational courses, particularly in engineering programmes, is likely to be reappraised.

3) Instruction and Assessment

When it comes to instructional development related to instructional process, such innovatory programmes as curriculum reform, collaborated development of textbooks, team teaching, interdisciplinary programmes, teaching evaluation, and the instructional model development have all been attempted during the past ten years. Nevertheless, no effective programme for instructional develoı nent has been established on a national basis.

The remarkable movement in the field of instructional development is that reconstruction of the curriculum in 10 pilot institutes in 1973 was extended to all colleges and universities in 1980. Minimum requirements for graduation were reduced to 140 credit hours from 160. Reduction of required courses, and an increase in elective courses and general education courses, were tried to induce the students to intensified learning and learning for discovery. They have not yet brought about an improvement in educational substance and teaching methods. As a means of quality control for educational content, syllabus presentation has been strongly recommended in all institutions. Even though syllabus presentation appeared to be a formal procedure, the exterior control helped to improve instructional content. The syllabus at least played a role in providing guidelines for the students as well as professors. Collaboration in the publication of textbooks and inter-disciplinary programmes related to the improvement of educational content was tried but only at a rudimentary stage.

The majority of colleges and universities in Korea hold two examinations per semester, one at mid-term and the other at the end of the semester. Success in laboratory, practice sessions and field training is usually determined on the basis of performance.

Absence from one-third or more of the class periods during the semester may lead to failure in the courses.

In general, a passing grade of 60 out of 100 is required for successful completion of any course. Grades are classified into A(90-100), B(80-89), C(70-79), D(60-69), and F(59 and under). A few institutions have a special provision for grade E(50-59); a student who was graded E in any subject is given another chance to take the second examination. The highest grade in the second examination, however, is limited to B. In most institutions, the lowest passing grade is set at D for the undergraduate course and C for the graduate course.

4. Finance, Expenditure and Facilities

1) Finance

Overview of Finance : In Korea about 9,600 million US dollars is invested per year for 11.6 million students in all levels of public and private school. The percentage of total public expenditure on education to GNP was 6.54 percent in 1985. In 1982, the Ministry of Education's budget exceeded 20 percent of the government's budget, which is the largest proportion that it had ever received and this rose to 20.3 percent in 1985 (Table 3-10). Due to the education tax, the proportion of the Ministry of Education's budget and public expenditure on education in 1982 has abruptly increased.

Table 3-10 Public Expenditure on Education Compared with other Indicators

(Unit: million US$, current price)

Classification	'77	'82	'85
GNP(A)	34, 406	19, 159	80, 052
Government Budget (B)	5, 930	12, 438	13, 789
MOE Budget(C)	1, 009	2, 559	2, 799
PUblic Expenditures(D)	1, 755	4, 677	5, 235
C/ A (%)	2. 9	3. 7	3. 5
C/ B (%)	17. 0	20. 6	20. 3
D/ A (%)	5. 1	6. 8	6. 5

The total amount of public expenditure distributed to primary,secoary, and higher education is about 35, 36 and 29 percent respectively(Table 3-11). Based upon the distribution trend from 1977 to 1985, it can be said that kindergarten and higher education show moderate increase trends, while primary and secondary education show decrease trends. In 1985, approximately 1,531 million dollars were apportioned to higher education.

Table 3-11 Apportionment of Public Expenditure on Education by School Level

School Level	'77		'82		'85	
Total	1,744	100.0%	4,676	100.0%	5,235	100.0%
Teacher'sColle	4	0.3	35	0.7	67	1.3
Primary Schools	660	37.8	1,590	34.0	1,738	33.2
Middle Schools	366	21.0	725	15.5	937	17.9
High Schools	407	3.3	868	18.6	962	18.4
Junior Vocation Colleges	54	3.1	252	5.4	233	4.4
Teacher's Colleges(1)	9	0.5	30	0.6	–	–
Colleges & Univ.(2)	244	14.0	1,176	25.2	1,298	24.8

Notes :

(1) Teachers' college included in Colleges Universities in 1985.
(Teacher's colleges have been raised from junior colleges to the status of four-year colleges in 1985).

(2) Including Graduate Schools

The financial resources of higher education in Korea can be classified into tuition and fees, governmental aids, grant and research contracts, endowments and others. In general, there has been a tendency to rely on students and the government in securing most of the resources. About three quarters of the total higher education finance in secured from student tuition and fees(Table 3-12). The percentage borne by the government is 13.3 percent. Endowments, which are quite popular in advanced countries, are less than 1 percent of the total revenue of higher education.

Table 3-12 Revenues of Higher Education Institutions ('85)

(Unit: million U.S.$)

Total	1,439(100.0)	392(100.0)	1,047(100.0)
Tuition & Fees	1,055(73.4)	194(49.6)	861(82.3)
·Registration fee	29(2.0)	4(1.1)	25(2.4)
·Tuition	610(42.4)	49(12.4)	562(53.7)
·Dues for School	416(29.0)	141(36.1)	275(26.2)
Supporting organization			
Governmental Aids	191(13.3)	181(46.1)	11(1.0)
Grants & Research Contracts	58(4.0)	—	58(5.5)
Endowments	12(0.8)	—	12(1.1)
Fees & Income	10(0.7)	0.1(0.0)	10(1.0)
Other Incomes	112(7.8)	17(4.3)	96(9.1)

Note : Excluding the special budget of university hospital, income from debt of private institutions, the budget of miscellaneous schools, and the budget for the students' defense corps.

The most outstanding difference between national (or public) institutions and private institutions is the percentage of student burden and government aid. In the case of national and public institution, the proportion of student tuition and fees and government aid are 50 and 46 percent respectively. In the case of private institutions, however, they are 82 and 1 percent respectively. It can, therefore, be said that private institutions depend on student tuitiion and fees for 82 percent of income while national and public institution depend on the student burden for 50 percent. Governmental financial support for private schools is nominal, because Korea has been keeping to the principle that "the founders are responsible for financing their own school" for a long time.

The components of the tuition and fees for students comprise the registration fee, tuition, dues for school supporting organizations and expenses for the

students' association(Table 3-13). Students who enroled in teacher's college pay the lowest tuition and fees since they receive a registration and tuition fees exemption from the government. Tuition and fees in the science fields and private institutes are 10 to 50% higher compared with humanity fields and national institutes respectively.

Table 3-13 Tuition and Fees Per Student('85)

(Unit: U.S. $)

Classification	Junior Colleges		Teacher's Colleges	Colleges & Universities	
	National & Public	Private		National & Public	Private
Freshmen	649	880		1,010	1,340
Total	593	807	458	920	1,340
Sophomore-Senior					
Registration fee	56	545	–	90	98
Tuition fee	138		–	337	837
Due for school supporting organization	439	246	441	583	405
Expense for Students' association	16	16	16	–	–

2) Expenditure

According to the purpose of expenditure, education costs can generally be identified as the expenses of personnel, operation, and facilities in Korea. Sometimes education costs are classified into two categories : current expenditure, which consists of salaries, wages and operational expenses, and capital outlay which is equivalent to facility expenses.

The expenditure structures of higher education institutions are quite different from each other according to their type and origin.

For example, national and public colleges and universities allocated 52.5 percent of their total budget to personnel expense, which is the largest portion compared with the expenses of operation and facilities, while private institution spent more money on operation than on personnel(Table 3-14).

Table 3-14 Expenditure Structure of Higher Education Institution('85)

Classification	Total(million U.S.$)	Personnel expenses	Operation expenses	Facility expenses
Junior Colleges	229	42.8	30.8	26.4
National & Public	34	46.6	30.6	22.8
Private	195	42.1	30.8	27.1
Colleges & Universities	1,283	41.6	35.7	22.7
National & Public	363	52.5	28.1	19.4
Private	920	37.3	38.7	24.0

In other words, public institutions allocate half of the total budget to salaries and wages, compared with 37 percent in private institutions. This is due to the fact that the pupil-teacher ratio of private institutions is much higher than that of public institutions.

As for universities and colleges, another analysis of expenditure is possible by year and function. The ratio of personnel costs is growing; the ratio of operationed costs dropped and then rose; and the ratio of facility cost rose and then declined. It is thought that such a trend has been brought about by a rapid increase in the student population through the implementation of the graduation quota system in 1980. As the investment in facilities showed a decline, expenditure has turned to operation and personnel expenses(Table 3-15).

Colleges and universities allocate 78.4 percent of their total budget for current expenditure and 21.6 percent for capital outlay(Table 3-16). For scholarships and library books, they appropriate only 10.7 percent and 1.4 percent respectively. The percentage of appropriation for scholarships, equipment, and experimentation-practice in private institutions is higher than that of public institutions.

Table 3-15 Expenditure of Colleges and Universities by Year and Function.

Year	Curent Expenditure		Capital Expenditure
	Personnel Expense	Operating Expense	Facilities Expense
1979	36.0	40.2	23.7
1980	36.1	28.8	35.0
1985	41.6	35.7	22.7

Table 3-16. Expenditure of Higher Education Institutions('85)

Classification	Total(%)	National & Public(%)	Private(%)
Total	1,439(100.o)	392(100.0)	1,047(100.0)
Current Expenditure	1,127(78.4)	302(77.1)	825(78.8)
-Salaries & Wages	685(47.6)	207(52.7)	478(45.7)
-Benefits	13(0.9)	1(0.2)	13(1.2)
-Scholarships	154(10.7)	27(6.8)	126(12.2)
-Equipment	23.(1.6)	2(0.4)	22(2.9)
-Experimentation	36(2.5)	6(1.4)	30(2.9)
-Library Books	20(1.4)	5(1.2)	15(1.5)
-Other Expenses	196(13.7)	57(14.4)	139(13.3)
Capetial Outlay	311(21.6)	90(22.9)	222(21.2)

3) Facilities

Facility Requirements : In Korea there are facility requirements for institutions of higher education prescribed by presidential decrees such as the decree on the criteria for the establishment of colleges and universities, the decree on the criteria for the establishment of junior colleges, and the decree on the criteria for the establishment of open colleges.

As for school land area, this should be more than 5 times the total area taken by school buildings. When an institution of higher education has separate campuses, each campus should satisfy the requirements for school land area. School land area, here, refers to all the land area within the school boundary except for farms, forests, animal husbandary, fish-farms, and herbary.

School buildings include such facilities as lecture rooms, laboratories, faculty offices, administrative offices, auditoriums, libraries, gymnasiums, student welfare facilities and other auxiliary facilities. As for faculty offices, it is stipulated that an institution be equipped with faculty offices the number of which is the same as, or more than, the number of faculty members with the title of assistant professorship and above. It is also stipulated that a playground intended for outdoor athletic activities of students be located within the school boundary unless otherwise approved by the Minister of Education. Libraries should include such facilities as reading rooms, periodical rooms, reference rooms, stack rooms, administrative offices and other necessary facilities.

The playground should be well irrigated and meet the size requirements. For example, an institution with a student enrolment of less than 1,000 is required to be equipped with a playground of is more than 20 metres in width and 50 meters in a diagonal line. If the student enrolment exceeds 1,000, the playground should be more than 6,000 square metres in size. Meanwhile, an institution with a physical education department is required to have a large 15,000 square metre playground. As for library facilities, an institution should equippd with a periodical room, stack room, and administrative room,in addition to a reading room with a minimum seating capacity of 10% of the

total number of students.

Status of Facilities : How well an institution of higher education is equipped with facilities can be judged by how well it meets the facility requirements. Colleges, universities, and teachers' colleges met 89% of the school land area requirements as of 1984. By type of establishment, national institutions met 96% of the requirements, whereas the ratio of their private counterparts stood at 87%. As for teachers' colleges, which are national institutions, the ratio stood at 86%(Table 3-17)

Table 3-17 Overview of School Land Area(1984)

(unit: m^2, %)

Classification	School land area requirement(A)	School current land area(B)	B(%) A
Total	28, 5 6, 529	50, 368, 111	89
Colleges & Universities	27, 837, 544	49, 457, 074	90
Nationbl & Public a	7, 855, 126	13, 659, 063	96
Universities	6, 382, 201	9, 726, 893	96
Colleges	1, 472, 925	3, 932, 170	96
Private	19, 982, 418	35, 798, 011	87
Universities	14, 643, 479	26, 455, 146	87
Colleges	5, 338, 939	9, 342, 865	88
Teachers' colleges	758, 985	911, 037	86

On the other hand institutions of higher education met 92% of the school building requirements. By type of institution, the ratio of national institutions remains at 97% whereas the ratio of private institutions stands at 91%.

The school land area per student shows a substantial difference between national and private institutions. For example, school land area per student is 1,114 square metres in national institutions, 87 square metres in public schools, and 153 square metres in private institutions. The average per-student land area stands at 378 square metres nationwide.

As for the school building area per student, the national average stands at 7.65 square metres. To divide by type of establishment, the per-student building area stands at 9.29 square metres among national institutions whereas it stands at 7.14 square metres among private institutions. The building area per-student, therefore, is larger at national institutions than at the private level. To analyze the building area by type of institution, the per capita building area is 11.9 square metres in teachers' colleges, 8.25 square metres in colleges and universities, and 0.89 square metres in graduate schools. There is also a considerable difference between various types of institution in school building area per student.

Maintenance System for Standard Facilities : To insure the standard of educational conditions for higher education, especially in colleges and universities, the institutional evaluation of colleges and universities is conducted autonomously by the Korean Council for University Education(KCUE).

The formation of an educational environment which is intimately related to facilities, is one of the 6 major categories of university evaluation along with learning and teaching activities, research activities, scholarship and welfare activities, social services, administrative and financial management.

The findings of and the compared facility status evaluation, for each college or university are to be distributed to the relevant institutions as a feedback.

5. Teachers Education

1) Primary School Teachers Education

Primary school teachers are trained at the nation's eleven teachers' colleges, established in various municipalities and provinces. During the period 1981-1984, the two-year junior teachers' colleges were converted into four-year colleges granting B.A. degrees to their graduates.

Some 75% ofteachers' college enrolments, are women students. This is an indication that primary school teaching is more attractive to female students than to male students.

Students of teachers' colleges are exempt from entrance and tuition fees and are entitled to scholarships, but, they are obliged to serve as school teachers for a given number of years, upon graduation. Graduates of Ewha Womans University, majoring in primary school education, are also eligible for the primary school teacher's license.

The curriculum of national teacher's college has been revised to reflect the extension of the course's duration. At present, it consists of required and elective courses. The former includes general subjects (national ethics, Korean language, the history of civilization, problems in Korean society, military drill, natural science, mathematics, English, and physical education) and professional education subjects (foundations of education, child development and instruction, curriculum, school administration, practice teaching, instructional methods and foreign language). The elective courses include a variety of subjects, including mathematics, practice teaching, educational research, foreign languages, audio-visual education, and school library management.

2) Secondary School Teachers Education

Secondary school teachers must have a bachelor's degree with a major in a discipline and professional coursework in teacher education. Programmes for secondary teachers are found in colleges of education, universities, and four-year colleges. There are 12 national and 25 private colleges of education in Korea, some of which are independent and not affiliated to any university. The difference between the national and private colleges of education is that the former charge relatively low tuition and offer other benefits. In return, the graduates of national colleges of education and teacher's colleges are obliged to teach at government-designated schools for a prescribed period of time.

Secondary vocational teachers are trained in four-year colleges and universities or may be graduates of junior colleges; both, however, must be certified as technicians in accordance with the National Technical Qualification

Law. The majority of nurses assigned to primary and secondary schools are trained in a three-year programme in junior colleges. There are a number of four-year Bachelor of Science programmes in nursing at colleges. Librarians must be graduates of a Library Science Department in a four-year college or university. (This group is also required to complete a course of study for the teaching profession). A new national university called Korea National University of Education has been established with aim of offering undergraduate and graduate degrees for primary and secondary teachers.

College of education curricula are composed of general humanitities subjects and specialized subjects which, in turn, are divided into required and elective subjects. A college of education student is normally expected to earn a minimum of 140 credits before graduation. Each college has considerable latitude in the allotment of time for specific courses or subjects. In general, however, primary emphasis is on such subjects as principles of pedagogy, practical pedagogy, curriculum, lecturing on specific subjects, the history of education, educational psychology, the school and the community, audio visual education, etc.

Apart from the colleges of education, some ordinary four-year colleges offer a teacher's course in addition to regular courses. The completion of this course of study is also required to finish at least 20 academic points in subjects related to the teaching profession.

3) In-service Training System

In-service education programmes for teachers are categorized into : a training programme for the purpose of acquiring higher qualification; a general education programme to acquire the skills and competence required to perform general duties and to acquire technical knowledge; and spiritual or ideological education to heighten a sense of commitment to the teaching profession, with a strong sense of mission and concern for the nation.

Re-training programmes to acquire the qualifications for principals, vice-principals, and first and second class teachers of kindergartens, and pri-

mary and secondary schools are offered by : local training institutions under municipal or provincial boards of education; or primary school teacher training institutions attached to teachers' colleges; and secondary school teacher training institutes attached to national universities.

Trainees are required to take at least 180 hours of courses to complete the programme. A short-term training course of 60 hours is also carried out for general training of teachers at training institutes of each school level designated by the superintendent of respective municipal and provincial boards of education. Morale education is offered by: the National Institute of Educational Research and Training, local teacher training institutes and municipal and provincial research institutes.

Teachers are also sent to south-east Asia, Europe and America for observation and training at overseas institutions. This is an effort to provide the teachers of primary and secondary schools with opportunities to broaden their views of the world and to study educational systems of other countries. Foreign language teachers are also being sent abroad to improve the quality of their language teaching. Overseas training for language teachers are bringing positive results particularly with the cooperation by governments of host countries.

4) Teacher and Administrative Certification

Teacher certification for primary and secondary education is categorized into one of the five following types: 1) associate, 2) second class, 3) first class, 4) vice-principal, and 5) principal.

The associate teacher's license is a special license for teachers who have not completed the professional education segment of a two-year or bachelor's degree program; they are , however, qualified in an academic area. For example, an individual with a Bachelor of Science in Engineering teaching in a vocational high school would not normally have taken preprofessional academic degree courses. A provincial or special city board may administer a competency examination based upon professional educational criteria; those

who pass may receive an associate's license.

Teachers who have completed a programme for teaching primary school or a programme for junior high school or senior high teaching from a college or university receive a second class teacher's certificate at graduation in addition to a bachelor's degree. The first class certificate is granted after three years of experience plus 240 hours of professional in-service training.

A vice-principal's certificate may be awarded to a teacher who has earned a first class certificate and has been recommended for in-service training by the superintendent. Selection for in-service training is competitive. For appointment to the position of vice-principal, which is a non-teaching position, the candidate must have a vice-principal's certificate in addition to specific in-service training. Selection for the position is based upon the recommendation of the superintendent and the concurrence of the provincial or special city Board of Education.

A principal's certificate is awarded to the vice-principal's certificate holder who is selected as a principal. In public institutions, selection of the principal is based upon the recommendation of the superintendent and the concurrence of the provincial or special city Board of Education. This recommendation is then forwarded to the Ministry of Education. The President of Korea then confirms the appointmert. In private primary and secondary schools, selection of the principal is made upon the recommendation of the chairman of the Board of Trustees of the private school to the superintendent of the Board of Education of the special city or province.

As for public schools, the tenure of office of the principal has been permanent until now. The contracted tenure system of the principal is planned to be effective sometime in 1989, with a view to offering larger opportunities for common teachers to administer.

6. Internationalization of Higher Education

1) The Needs and Efforts of the Internationalization of Higher Education

Internationalization of higher education has recently attracted much interest in Korea and considerable efforts have been devoted toward promoting this endeavour. Modern society demands that universities meet international standards and, consequently, internationalization has increasd in response to this expectation.

The internationalization of higher education, especially in universities, is hardly a new phenomenon. Considering the origins of the university and the intellectual goals universities pursue, it can be said that universities already possess an international character. However, the question of internationalization of universities is being discussed more today in Korea and various plans for its promotion are being sought in this rapidly changing society. Some of the needs of internationalization of higher education are as follows :

(1) Modern society can be called the age of science and information. Through the advantages of science and information, the world has been transformed into a "global village," which inspires an international perception of the world community.

(2) Modern society demands that knowledge has a universal character and is not limited to a specific country. Any university concerned with the formulation and transmission of beneficial learning therefore, must focus on knowledge that is commonly understood in international circles.

(3) In a country like Korea, where natural resources are lacking, efforts must be devoted to development of human resources in order to survive. Thus, the university which is responsible for training superior manpower must cultivate and inspire the ability to participate actively on the international stage.

The President's Commission for Education Reform also pointed out the importance of internationalization in its May 1987 report. On the topic of

"For the enhancement of national academic standards and the advancement of arts and sciences," the Commission recommended an expansion of faculty and student exchanges on a reciprocal basis. To achieve this, the Commission suggested the following practical measures :

(1) Increase exchanges of professors and students from foreign universities at the individual institutional level;

(2) Strengthen support for international academic conferences;

(3) Establish sister-university ties with foreign universities and promote joint research projects;

(4) Support international research activities of professors and professional researchers; and

(5) Strengthen the role of institutions as a medium for exchanging international arts and science research.

The Ministry of Education and the Korea Research Foundation have operated programmes to foster internationalization of the higher education and the programme will be described in the following sections. Besides the above programmes the Korean Council for University Education and individual universities have tried to promote internationalization of higher education.

The Korean Council for University Education, founded in 1982, has promoted international exchanges in addition to fostering cooperation between industry, universities and other schools. For instance, the Council sponsors an international seminar annually, each seminar placing particular emphasis on a specific topic, which is regarded as of common interest in the higher education circle.

Also most universities operate an international affairs division or international research institute that handles overall matters pertaining to international education. The major activities of such organizations are the establishment of sister universities abroad, student exchanges and faculty exchanges.

2) Exchange of Faculty Members

Exchanges of faculty can be divided into two categories. One is to invite foreign faculty to Korea so that they can learn about our culture and we can learn about theirs. The other is to send Korean faculty members overseas in order to disperse Korean culture and to allow them to learn about other people.

Invitations to Foreign Faculty: Usually foreign faculty members are invited to Korean universities in one of the five categories as follows :

(1) Foreign missionaries teaching at Korean mission schools;

(2) Visiting professors through regular programmes between sister universities;

(3) Fullbright scholars or other international academic scholarships;

(4) Faculty of Korean ancestry living and teaching overseas;

(5) Foreign professors invited through private negotiations.

In all five types of exchange, the foreign professor must receive approval from the host university to secure a teaching position in Korea.

Foreigners appointed to teaching positions at Korean universities receive one of two types of title. In the case of private universities, visiting professors receive the same title as Korean faculty, that is, professor or associate professor, and in the case of national and public universities, faculty members are employed as civil servants. As foreigners cannot become civil servants in Korea, however, foreign professors at national and public universities receive the title of visiting or honorary professors.

Unless there is a special contract, foreign professors receive the same salaries and benefits as Korean professors at their rank. In some cases, however, based on individual agreements, there are short-term contracts by semester or school year. Extra benefits, other than salary, may be given. In many universities, accommodation is also provided to foreign faculty.

The Ministry of Education has formulated guidelines for hiring foreign

nationals. According to these guidelines, each university is free to appoint foreigners, but the appointments must be reported to the Ministry of Education. Other aspects of the guidelines include :

(1) Appointments in science, technology and foreign languages are primarily encouraged;

(2) Hiring foreign nationals who enter for purposes other than than education or employment of persons of dual citizenship is discouraged; and

(3) Inviting foreign scholars for one year or less is encouraged.

In 1985, there were 801 foreign professors (including 146 part-time instructors) employed in Korea. This constituted 4 percent of the 20,700 university faculty in the country that year. The number of foreign faculty is expected to increase year by year (Table 3-19).

Table 3-18 Foreign Professors in Korea by Status

(in person)

	National University	Private University	Total
Regular faculty member	1	492	493
Honorary and visiting professor	54	109	163
Part-time instructor	36	110	146
Total	91	711	802

Overseas Study for Korean Faculty: There are two major ways Koran faculty can study overseas. One is engaging in research enabled through government grants and the other is studying through private negotiations.

The Ministry of Education has promoted overseas study with grants since 1978. This programme enables Korean faculty to perform research in advanced countries, to introduce advanced knowledge to Korea, and to compare aca-

demic methods with those of Korea. The ultimate purpose of the grants is to encourage exchanges of the arts and sciences.

The faculty select the university where they want to pursue research. In 1986, the Ministry of Education provided grants to 1,656 Korean faculty members(Table 3-20). The United States received the majority of grantees (61.3 percent), followed by Japan (22.5 percent), Great Britain (6.5 percent) and West Germany (4.1 percent).

Table 3-19 Korean Professors Studying Overseas by Country

Country	Number of Professors	Percent
U. S. A.	1,015	61.3
Japan	373	22.5
Great Britain	108	6.5
West Germany	68	4.1
France	36	2.2
Canada	25	1.5
Austria	8	0.5
Taiwan	6	0.4
Australia	4	0.2
Others	13	0.8
Total	1,656	100.0

There are no such statistics available on the number of professors studying overseas through private negotiations or overseas grants, because each instance is individually arranged. The following are examples of non-governmental overseas study :

(1) Foreign governments, such as Japan, Germany, India and the Sudan, offer scholarship programmes for study abroad. These programmes are mostly for students, although some professors are invited.

(2) Professors are given the opportunity to study abroad through such programmes as the Colombo Plan, Unesco, the International Atomic Energy Association (IAEA), ASPAC Overseas Study Programmes, Fullbright Scholarships and invitations from the French government.

(3) In some cases, exchanges are carried out between professors from Korean universities and sister universities overseas.

(4) Increasing numbers of professors are spending their sabbatical years studying overseas. Others study overseas under contracts with international agencies, where they work as research assistants or consultants.

3) Exchange of Students

Exchange of students can be divided into two categories, as in the case of faculty exchange. One is to send Korean students overseas, and the other is to admit foreign students to Korean institutions. Usually going abroad is operated on a private basis. So exact statistic of how many students go abroad are not really available. It is estimated, however, that there are about 30,000 students studying in foreign higher education institutions.

More and more foreign students have been interested in studying in Korea year by year. So some practical information for foreigners entering in Korea and staying here will be enumerated in the remaining section.

Entry to Korea: Students from foreign countries may be admitted to Korea if they are able to certify that they have been accepted for a fulltime course of study at a college, university or vocational college or further education. They will also need to show that adequate funds are available to meet the costs of the course and of their own maintenance or that of any dependents.

A foreign student may require a visa and is advised to approach the nearest Korean official representative as soon as possible to apply for any necessary visa or to ascertain whether he may be eligible for admission to Korea. The applicant must be able to show proof that he has been accepted for a full-time course of study, and he may also be required to produce evidence of previous academic achievement and proof that adequate financial arrangements have been made on his behalf. A proposal to study only part-time will not justify

the issue of an entry certificate on a student basis.

Oversea students who intend to study or conduct specific research in Korean educational institutes must file an application with the nearest Korean embassy or consulate for entry visa status. On arrival, they are requested to make a residence report (form No. 39) at the respective district immigration office within 90 days of arrival. For the alien's convenience, registration can be completed at the same time as the residence report is made at the Immigration Office. The valid duration of an entry visa is one year, subject to approval on extension to be initiated by the letter of the institute giving evidence of acceptance for a course of full-time study. For an extension of the stay, an application must be filed to the district immigration office before the original period of stay expires.

A student is not permitted to enter employment. He(or she) may be permitted to teach their native language during the vacation or in his free time; in this case the prior approval of the Ministry of Education is necessary.

A resident alien who intends to travel abroad for temporary purposes and return to Korea before expiration of the authorized period of stay shall apply for re-entry permit. In accordance with the treaties between Korea and their countries, aliens who are nationals of the following countries may leave or re-enter Korea without a re-entry permit if the period of their residence certificate is still valid. The countries are France, Belgium, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, Surinam, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden, the U.K. and so on.

Admission: For overseas students and the dependents of Koreans in overseas services, the Education Law makes a special provision stipulating a separate channel of entry to colleges and universities in Korea. According to the Law, two categories of students are exempt from the standard written examination. Article III of the Education Law specifies students falling in this catgory as those who have completed 12 years or more of education in foreign countries , and those who were transferred from foreign schools and have completed high school education in Korea, subject to recognition by the Presidential Decree. Overseas students and Koreans who are attending high schools abroad

Health and Medical Treatment: At several universities the registration of overseas students is provisional until they have undergone a medical examination (including an X-ray of the chest) conducted by the university's medical officer on entry. A student who does not pass this examination is not allowed to attend any course. A student should therefore make sure, before leaving his own country, that he is in good health and, in particular, that he is not suffering form tuberculosis or other infectious or contagious diseases.

Financial Assistance: Financial assistance takes three forms: tuition exemption, scholarships and credit loans. Tuition exemption and scholarships are available to applicants who have shown a high academic standard. Credit loans are available to needy students if an arrangement can be made to guarantee the repayment of the loan after graduation. Many universities have their own funds for providing this financial aid. At the undergraduate level, it is extremely difficult to be the recipient of a scholarship. At the graduate level, the possibility of financial assistance increases with a variety of research projects undertaken under the auspices of graduate schools. University funds are also made available to foreign students.

The scholarships and awards currently available are grouped into two major categories, namely : on-campus awards and off-campus awards. The former provides a full or partial exemption of tuition and fees. Although on-campus scholarships differ from university to university, there are some in common. Of these, the alma mater scholarship stands out. The off-campus scholarships are offered by business firms, charitable foundations, and voluntary organizations which serve the interests of members. These are largely in the form of a stipend available to a few selected students who show high academic performance but are in need of financial support.

fit into these two categories. For the dependents of Korean in overseas services, a separate quota is arranged. When the applicants exceed the number of given places, admission may be based on the scores of a competitive examination. The admission of overseas students, however, is not subject to this rule, providing that they have a working command of the Korean language. Overseas students are advised to contact the relevant college or university for further information regarding the possibility of admission.

Accomodation: No university in Korea is fully residential. A few universities have dormitories but their facilities are severely limited and obtaining a place of residence is highly competitive. The majority of students outside the place of residence live in lodgings where a room and meals are included. It is advisable, when applying for admission to a Korean univerity from abroad, to apply for a place in university accommodation, for some give foreign students priority in assigning rooms. Due to the congested traffic, it is important to select a lodging in a place which has ready access to the universities. The university campus is surrounded by so many lodging houses that students have a range of choices from which to select.

Aware of the problem of residential accommodation for overseas students, the Korean Government established the Korea Research Foundation (K.R.F.) to provide overseas students with residential accommodation. This comprises twin bed rooms, or double occupancy and single rooms. Uniquely, the accommodation facilities reflect a combination of hotel and dormitory : the twin bed room resembles that of a first-class hotel but the single and double occupancy rooms are of the dormitory type. The double-occupancy room has a shower and bathroom. Overseas students may also find accommodation at the Y.M.C.A. and Youth Hostels at a reasonable price.

Living expenses, including room and meals, transportation and other personal expenses amount to at least 300,000 (＄400) per month, providing that overseas students live in lodgings. This may vary, though, according to locality. Living expense in Seoul are higher than in the provinces due to the concentration of cultural and educational amenities in the area.

IV. PRESENT ISSUES OF AND FUTURE PROSPECT FOR KOREAN HIGHER EDUCATION

The marked development of Korean education in quantitative and some qualitative terms has turned the education system into a remarkable achievement. In particular, Korean higher education has expanded at a rate unprecedented by any other nation in the world. This exploding growth of the Korean higher education population was caused by many factors such as the educational policy to make up for the country's lack of natural resources, Koreas traditional enthusiam for education, the rather steep salary differential between college graduates and non-college graduates and the growing demand for highly-skilled manpower. The excessively rapid quantitative growth unaccompanied by due qualitative improvement, however, has resulted in more than a few problems including social conflict.

These days desirable drastic changes and reforms are actively in progressing in every field of Korean society. It is expected that these changes and reforms will be more greatly and widely realized in higher education than in any other field. This is because many people agree that the college student movement has been instrumental in the political upheaval, democratization and autonomization, but has also posed a threat to the academic atmosphere on campus. The other reason for this expectation comes from the fact that "university autonomization", was declared on June 29 of last year, and stipulated in the new Constitution through a referendum. Most people concerned with higher education in Korea welcome the change and reforms.

1. Major Issues and Problems

1) Control vs. Autonomy

Since the early 1960's government control of higher education has been greatly increased as well as government support for higher education. As control became prevalent it has strengthened, often to the extent of rigidity, and the shrinking autonomy on the part of individual institutions, individual

professors and students has now become a matter of concern. While the strengthening of control itself was considered inevitable in the Korean scene for assurance of the public interest and for various other reasons, the issue of autonomy is naturally a delicate one. Autonomy in both it's institutional and individual aspects has long been regarded as the core ethos of academic freedom, which in turn has been guarded as the life of a college or university. While the nature and conditions of autonomy have gradually become subject to change in the external environment, that is, political-economic and socio-cultural factors, the essence of it has been continuously guaded not only as part of tradition but as the basic principle governing higher education, which has been regarded as the main source of academic freedom essential to preserve preserving and a spirit of critical inquiry.

The controversy over the problem of control vs. autonomy will continue, not so much as to philosophical or ideological validity as to the timeliness, extent, and scope of autonomy to be accorded to individual institutions and college people. In this connection Korean higher education faces a turning point, gradually moderating external control and augmenting institutional and individual autonomy in higher education in general, and particularly in colleges and universities.

2) Equality vs. Excellence

Access to higher education has become easier. As higher education has developed into the mass stage, however, the student population has become more heterogeneous in terms of family background, attitude, interest, capacity for learning and so on. The trend of massification in higher education means better access to and broadening opportunities for higher education, although, strictly speaking, it does not necessarily mean the same thing as equality of educational opportunity.

Korean higher education has made remarkable progress towards greater equality as far as access to higher education is concerned, primarily due to the rapid expansion of the higher education population and eagerness to pursue

higher learning on the one hand, and a concerted policy effort directed towards greater equality and balance on the other. Higher education has long struggled to maintain homeostasis, although it has not been wholly successful.

At the present time there are around one million students enrolled in four different categories of higher educational institution and it is by no means small.

As the college/university population has increased, the question of excellence, of quality vs. quantity, has gradually orisen raised. Many specific tasks lie ahead in order to pursue a higher education policy directed towards maintaining excellence against a background of expansion and mass higher education.

3) Conformity vs. Diversity

In Korean higher education system it is particularly noteworthy that while institutions are characterised by diversity, policymaking and administrative patterns tend to be characterised by conformity.

This is partly due to a highly centralized bureaucratic control and legalistic approach and partly due to a lack of autonomy on the part of individual institutions, which tend to rely on the Ministry of Education for guidance of institutional policies. While diversity in historical background, size, constitution of the faculty and the student body, surrounding social milieu, prestige and social reputation are given factors not to be changed in a day, conformity in policy and administration is something transitory and changeable. Controversy over the problem of conformity vs. diversity, therefore, is not so much concerned with the given facts, as with government policy and administration towards individual institutions with divergent conditions.

Korean higher education is heading for an open, international universalistic society. Conformity will not be suitable for such a society. In the pursuit of excellence it may be necessary for the higher education institutions to utilize positive discrimination. Those institutions with the capacity for autonomy and self-reliance should be kept as free as possible from unnecessary constraints

and interference, while others with less capability for autonomy may need a greater degree of guidance or even externally forced control.

4) Specificity vs. Universality

Higher educational institutions grew out of the Medieval university characterised by a universal orientation above and beyond that of nation or class. As modern states emerged, however, they became naturally subject to the national ethos and legislative/administrative controls, more or less determined by the environmental conditions of the time and the society in which they existed.

Knowledge and skills as developed through the cultivation of differential disciplines in general have an application beyond national boundaries. In this sense universities still conserve the universal traditions, not only in terms of what should be taught and what should be learned, but also in terms of who should be taught and how the products, whether manpower resources or knowledge explored and created, should be utilized. Many distinguished universities in advanced countries are thus international and characteristic of the universal tenet.

The problem of specificity vs. universality or particularism vs. universalism, therefore, is by no means an abstract philosophical question detached from the reality of university life. It becomes a real day-to-day problem related to curriculum, admission of students, faculty quality and their research work.

In the Korean scene, has stressed the sense of national identity leaning towards specificity has stressed and this trend still persists. The higher education is gradually realizing that it should meet the challenges of a new, open and international era. To meet this challenge pressure to emphasize the universal in higher education is being increased.

5) Social Demand Approach vs. Manpower Demand Approach

In planning for higher education, there are several different approaches, of which the social demand approach and the manpower demand approach

in the practical sense are the most important. The social demand approach, reflects mainly individual aspirations and interests. The manpower demand approach, On the other hand, reflects projected and estimated manpower needs in different economic sectors, such needs being reflected in estimating places in various fields of higher education. In the latter case the assumption is that planning in higher education should be closely linked to manpower needs in the target year in order not to waste trained high-level manpower and to ensure near full employment.

Both approaches, of course, have their respective pros and cons. The merits of the social demand approach are :

(1) it is relatively easy to estimate

(2) it is not vulnerable to political pressure since it tends to satisfy those who aspire to go to college

(3) at least from the short-term point of view it is more acceptable to society, leaving little room for social controversy.

The major merits of the manpower demand approach are as follows :

(1) due to coordination between economic and educational development, assuming that it is effectively applied, there is little room for wastage of high-level manpower

(2) educational development plans are likely to be supported more effectively by the financial authorities concerned

(3) if full employment is realized, it will contribute to the stabilizing of society.

In Korea, there was a time when the manpower need approach was greatly emphasized. Few countries in the world, however, apply this strictly in actual planning except for the socialist bloc countries. Korea has tended to fluctuate like a pendulum from one side to another. It remains a difficult task for Korea to find the best way of harmonizing two drastically different approaches. The economic returns and international comparisons methods may

well be used to supplement these approaches.

2. Directions for the Reform

1) Pursuit of Excellence

The qualitative improvement of higher education is a primary concern, as competition among nations is taking the form of a race for the development of high-level manpower. Higher education in Korea should strengthen its quality control in the pursuit of excellence, without disregarding the demand for popularization and democracy with assumed diversity in quality.. In the development of a quality control mechanism, efforts should be made to give support and assistance to helping individual institutions attain feasible goals for improvement. The optimum size of the higher education population should be decided, the minimum requirement of facilities and equipment met, programme evaluation strengthened, and criteria for degree-conferring upgraded for quality control.

Another way to effect qualitative improvement is to promote competition among higher education institutions and provide selective support for those which are outpacing the others.

Programme contents and method should be reformed in order to develope the qualities of the whole person. This also requires the reformation of the entrance examination.

The next step is to strengthen research institutes and support them selectively while ensuring an effective link between research and graduate education.

2) Enhancement of Autonomy

The Uniform control of all higher educational institutions should be discontinued. Instead, greater autonomy should be given in proportion to the individual institution's willingness and ability to assume social responsibility. This assumes diversity in quality, and indicates the need to allow for greater flexibility and less emphasis on a rigid approach to regulatory standards relative to length of study, credit hours, curricular standards, and so on.

An increase of autonomy for institutions of higher education would require the government to abandon its rigid control and permit the universities to determine their own affairs.

It would also reguire the establishment of an autonomous steering committee to guide the operations of national universities. To ensure political neutrality and autonomy in research, professors should be given an independent status, free of interference and pressures from outside.

Quality control may be achieved by upgrading the criteria for the establishment of institutions, creating an accreditation system and organising a coordination mechanism. A autonomy works, however, on the premise that each institution has the capacity to govern itself. Before autonomy is granted, each institution should conduct a self-assessment, examining its enrollment capacity and needs and formulating a plan to make necessary improvements.

3) Increase of Diversity

Diversity should be built into the system of higher education if it is to remain responsive to multifarious social needs. It should be flexible in matters related to the duration of schooling years and eligibility criteria for admission, while expanding extramural activities which serve the community in the context of life-long education.

Higher education institutions in Korea should establish a more distinctive character through clarification of their objectives, and by establishing priorities of function. This must be emphasized for all higher education institutions, whether universities or non-university bodies. Colleges and universities need to pursue harmony in education, research and service functions, with targets and priorities clearly indicated.

Functional specialization should be promoted to link universities in an intercomplementary relationship. The programmes of junior colleges should be distinct from those of universities or 4 year colleges. Different development models should be created for the latter according to their unique needs.

Administrative and financial support should be given selectively to promote a functional relationship which saves institutions from the prohibitive burden

of offering courses which duplicate those of other universities. Focusing on a few courses representing institutional strength provides an effective sharing of resources and facilities and builds institutional characteristics.

The scope of optional courses should be enlarged by diversifying programmes which address the divergent backgrounds of students.

4) Enhancement of Effectiveness

The effectiveness of higher education is enhanced by ensuring the relevance and productivity of the educational programmes. Relevance should be considered in relation to social and occupational needs. The updating of programme contents is facilitated by establishing cooperation between industry and academic world.

There should, therefore, be increased efforts for co-operation between colleges and universities on the one hand, and industry and other related community organizations on the other aimed at maximizing efficiency in education, research and social service, and consequently increasing the social productivity of higher education.

It is essential to reform the administrative structure of universities in a way which trims down redundant formalities and simplifies clerical work. To finance the reform and development of higher education, it is crucially important to develop new sources of educational financing. Policy measures should be enacted to ecourage the contribution of the private sector.

3. Policy Tasks for the Development

1) Function of Higher Education System

Functional Diversification and Specialization of Universities : Two-year colleges are not properly linked to four-year colleges or universities due to the vagueness of goals which are supposed to be differentiated between school levels. The same can be said of the relation between undergraduate and graduate programmes. Furthermore, the lateral relation among colleges is devoid of differentiating characteristics in educational programmes.

(1) In order to meet a wide range of vocational needs, junior technical colleges should be divided into two patterns, those with a vocational orientation and the comprehensive type. The former purports to produce middle-level technicians in specific areas of strategic importance for industrial development. The second type features a different variety of course, since it meets general and cultural needs of adults for continuing education.

(2) The nation's university system should comprise a greater variety of institutions, and each type should focus its attention on its own limited function. Diversity in the type of university should be based on the premise that it facilitates the functional specialization of universities. The classification of colleges and universities may be based on functional criteria, namely on their primary orientation toward teaching or research, or professional training.

Along the vertical line, universities are classified according to whether they put emphasis on undergraduate or graduate programmes. The latter criteria divide higher institutions into three clusters, namely : undergraduate education alone, parallel education (attempting both undergraduate and graduate education), and graduate education alone.

(3) Universities are encouraged to shape their educational programmes, in view of regional education conditions and local needs, and to develop their own differentiated competitive edge in relation to others, thus ensuring an excellent quality of education system.

(4) Functional specialization should be promoted between national and private universities. The former may well focus on programmes of strategic importance for national development and those which require a massive capital investment. Meeting local needs should be on essential goal for regional private and public universities.

Establishing an Evaluation and Accredition System : Evaluation of universities should take place through a socially or publically organized effort to ascertain whether they are capable of performing the three major functions of a university, namely, teaching, research, and service. Such public scrutiny and accountability is directly linked to improving the quality of education

by inspiring constructive competition among universities.

The evaluation and accredition system will go a long way toward raising the academic standard of higher education, the public trust of degrees conferred, and the self-governing ability of the university.

(1) In order for the evaluation and accreditation system to take hold, a plan should be made to effect its development through three stages. The first is for the universities to lay the foundations by giving priority to research and balanced development. In the second stage, legislative action should be taken to build the infrastructure. This leads to the third stage which would see a full-fledged implementation of the system.

(2) The national evaluation and accreditation system should have a network linked to the evaluation committee for each university cluster. The central accreditation commission may be attached to the inter-university coordination committee. The central national accreditation body may be assisted by sub-committees which are organized around disciplines or fields of study, or around types of schools.

(3) Evaluation and accreditation should take effect five years after an institution is established. It should begin with the overall aspects of the institution's credibility and extend to its colleges and fields of study. From the viewpoint of raising the academic standard of higher education, it is necessary to set a time period to allow the institution to carry out the improvements recommended by the evaluation committee.

Specification of Teacher Education Intitutions : Teacher's colleges and colleges of education are the major source of teachers. The former produces primary school teachers, and the latter produces secondary school teachers. At the moment teacher training institutions are hardly differentiated in terms of programme content and method from general colleges and universities. It is essential that the school curriculum should be directly linked to the programme of the teachers college. In this context the present system of teacher training leaves much to be desired. Reform should be sought in a way that

ensures the character formation and maximum professionalism teachers.

(1) College of education programmes should be characterized by greater emphasis on subject matter, with specific reference to teaching method, research, and evaluation related to each subject.

(2) In response to an increasing demand for subject specialists, graduate schools should create departments of subject matter education and increase the student quota.

(3) To broaden the base of disciplines, teacher training programs should introduce a larger number of optional courses. Optional courses may well focus on new disciplines-such as computer education, information processing, and special education.

(4) Teacher training institutions should be equipped with modern technological devices to impart knowledge. Student teachers should have taken courses on, or conducted prolonged investigations into, the utility of new technologies before they actually teach them.

The Role of the University in Life-long Education : University graduates will continuously be confronted with new knowledge and skills to be acquired. Consequently, universities will continually be urged to play a new role in providing access to educational programs. The new trend also demands that the university endeavor to enhance the social relevance of programmes. The university no longer remains aloof from the problems spawned in the dust of everyday life.

(1) The university should offer a wide variety of non-degree courses and programmes which serve students from diverse backgrounds. Such programmes should be composed of modular units allowing them to be tailored to individual needs.

(2) The non-degree programs offered by universities should cover a wide spectrum ranging from specifically tailored skill programmes to cultural and literacy courses.

2) Operation of Higher Educational System

Greater Autonomy for the Management of Higher Education : The management of higher education has become fossilized into bureaucracy, inertia and dependency. The Ministry of Education makes decisions regarding most issues related to university management. University operations should be considered in the context of allowing this potential to be tapped to raise management efficiency.

(1) The president of an independent college deserves as much attention as a university president. Discriminatory treatment according to title and size nourishes feelings of inferiority among faculty members and students of a small college, and this feeling is frequently manifested in the blind pursuit of enrollment expansion, hoping to develop the college into a university.

(2) Universities should be freed from having to obtain the approval of the Ministry of Education for regulations governing academic affairs. Reporting should replace the current approval system, if each institution is to develop its own characteristics properly.

(3) The process of decision-making on major issues should be open to faculty members. Much of the administrative authority should be delegated to each college or faculty group.

(4) Legal intervention into the organization of the curriculum should be diminished and greater allowance made for incentives.

Autonomy in Adjusting Enrollment Quotas : The Ministry of Education issues guidelines to universities, setting a narrow framework within which each university determines its own enrollment quotas to be approved by the Government. The final enrollment quotas for universities are determined by the Government.

Autonomy in enrollment quotas should be based on the premise that it affects the qualitative improvement of higher education. The link between enrollment policy and education quality suggests that the way to promote autonomy is in the context of inspiring competition among universities and their voluntary

participation in self quality-control.

(1) Certain restrictions on enrollment are justified from the view point of quality control. It follows, therefore, that the government is responsible for the determination of total enrollment.

(2) Government control of the enrollment quota should continue until the evaluation and accreditation system takes hold. It may be replaced by an autonomous accreditation organization which combines the determination of enrollment quota with evaluative functions.

Regional University Development Committee : According to 1987 data, the total number of universities and colleges across the nation is 103 and 36 among them are located in the Seoul metropolitan area. There is a wide gap between Seoul and other areas in terms of education quality and educational conditions.

A regionally balanced development of higher education is not only a matter of priority support by the government. A cooperative net-work among colleges and universities could assume an important dimension, not only among institutions themselves, but also between the university or college and the regional community, as a major vehicle for the accelerated development of the local institution.

(1) The committee should formulate a comprehensive university development plan which invites all universities in the region to participate, and supports cooperation between universities, and between universities and industry.

(2) The committee members should include the president of a university or of an independent college, and representatives of local government, industry, and social organizations.

(3) Under the regional higher education development committee, subcommittees should be established to suggest the specialization of functions, namely; the inter-university cooperation sub-committee, the university-industry subcommittee, and regional development subcommittee.

3) Professors and Students

Reducing the Professor-student Ratio : In spite of a marked expansion of enrollment, the number of faculty members has not increased proportionally and the number of students per professor is nearly double that of advanced countries. The result is that professors are overburdened, with little time to conduct preparatory study for instruction. This also accounts for the dearth of research activity by professors. Reducing the professor-student ratio would be an initial step to activate research and teaching, and improve professional competency.

(1) The number of faculty members should increase, until it reaches an average target number of 15 students per instructor.

(2) The number of teaching hours per week should not exceed 9 hours, including teaching in graduate school and giving assistance to graduate students writing dissertations.

(3) The number of students per class should centre around 30 on average. When course enrollment exceeds this number, classes should be divided.

Strengthening of the Tenure System on the College Level : In 1976, a system of appointing faculty members under a two-year or more contract was enforced by the government to limit the term of faculty members, subject to renewal after a careful review of their on-going academic activity and other records made during the term. The sense of instability, particularly in professional occupations, had an adverse impact on the autonomy and academic freedom which are essential in ensuring a high professional standard. It has also been blamed for its side effect of undermining the consistency and continuity of academic activity. Furthermore, the vagueness of criteria has rendered the scheme virtually useless, and many voices have been raised to abolish it. As an alternative, since 1984 the tenure system has been coming into the forefront of our thinking.

(1) A tenure system should be recommended to private as well as national universities.

(2) Appointment of faculty members to the ranks of full instructor and assistant professor should be made under a limited contract, with a mechanism for assessing eligibility for promotion.

(3) The renewal of contract or promotion should be based on objective criteria which reflect research accomplishments, publications, teaching performance and service in expected guidance of students, and so on.

Entrance Examination by College or University : The old entrance examination system was blamed for heavy reliance on a stereotype written text, and the fact that scores obtained by choosing the right answers for multiple - choice questions, and guesswork between 'true and false', became the sole indicators of individual potential for growth.

Recognizing of these problems, the Ministry of Education hastened to promulgate a new entrance examination, which is beginning with the entrance class of 1988. Under the new system students must apply to the departments which they wish to enter before taking the scholastic achievement test. The new system features test items which should be answered with subjective judgment and reasoning. The number of subject areas to be tested has been reduced, and universities are given freedom to add optional topics in the test.

An ideal entrance examination has yet to be developed, which ensures the autonomy of each university in selecting students and guides career development based on aptitude.

(1) In the early 1990s, each university will be given full autonomy in developing and implementing its own screening device. Granting autonomy to individual universities will create a wealth of testing instruments and screening criteria upon which to draw.

(2) After the initial experiment the Ministry of Education will supplement or modify the new entrance examination system as the need arises. The Central Education Evaluation Institute should maintain a pool of testing items for each university to draw up on in constructing its own testing system.ith each candidate able to apply to two or three universities.

4) Conditions of Research

Expansion and Modernization of University Library Facilities : Besides providing space and materials for learning and research, the library is expected to serve additional functions as an information centre. Existing college and university libraries suffer from a serious shortage of space, and on insufficient collection of materials. Libraries do not currently their complete function as centres of learning and research.

(1) Standard library facilities should be upgraded to expand space and seating capacity to accommodate 25 percent or more of the student enrollment. The number of administrative and supporting personnel should also be expanded accordingly.

(2) New library networks should be developed within each university, consisting of the central library and subordinates. The latter may be created in each college or faculty, with operational Lines of communication linking them to each other and to the central library.

(3) Routine work related to listing, lending, and collecting should be computerized.

(4) An information exchange network should be developed, connecting all university libraries in a relationship that facilitates the exchange of information and the maximum utilization of existing materials.

(5) The collection of books, periodicals and reference material should be expanded according to the minimum standard expressed in the number of materials per student.

Research on Basic Science at University Level : An international study has shown that Korean universities, compared to overseas institution, are the most backward in research. This is particularly true in the natural sciences and basic research. Korean research in the some fields of basic sciences lags behind Argentina, Mexico, Brazil and Taiwan. This means that Korea has not laid a solid foundation for scientific and technological development.

Weakness in basic-science research in universities limits the development

of high-level technology which requires a demanding combination of research and education.

(1) Priority support should be given to those colleges of natural science and engineering which surpass others in the quality of their faculty members, facilities, and research capability. Support should fows on the special programmes which represent the unique strength of the college.

(2) Encouragement and support should be given to research institutes attached to or affiliated with universities, which specialize in research on basic science. Favoured support should be given to such research on a massive scale.

(3) Similarly, it might be worth while erecting a regional joint research centre in order to support and coordinate research activities by faculty members and graduate students of local universities.

(4) As an alternative to spending so much on costly equipment, a cooperative system should be developed for the sharing of prohibitively expensive equipment and resources among provincial colleges of natural science and engineering. The cooperative system could be extended to overseas institutes and to participation in distant experiments.

Research Support System : Despite the growing importance of research, even the best Korean universities are hardly equipped to provide the necessary conditions for real research and as a result research activity has diminished and become lacklustre.

Faculty members are having to pay greater attention to their heavy teaching loads than to undertaking research in their field. Research funding is inadequate, and conditions rarely meet the standard required to support true innovative work. Revitalising the research activity of all ordinary universities is crucially important to national development. A marked increase in investment, therefore, is necessary to support research and development in all true universities providing graduate programmes.

(1) The way to strengthen the research function boils down to the streamlining of research centres attached to universities. Those incapable of

carrying out research on a fully fledged scale should be dissolved, while support should be increased for those intent on improving their research capability.

(2) Research grants should be sharply increased. The research promotion funds currently provided by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Science and Technology should be increased in their proportion of the government budget.

(3) The standard requirement of educational facilities should be upgraded to support research at the graduate level. Graduate students should be given their own research rooms or facilities, and technicians should be recruited to assist in operating and managing costly equipment and lab facilities for research.

Regional Studies : There are two main trends of change taking place which affect international relations in today's world. One is the growing tendency for interdependence among open and free societies. Today, there are few major problem which are truly parochial in nature, being uniquely limited to one country. The impact of a problem on the domestic scene is often extended, in one way or another, to other countries, and a solution frequently calls for collaborative attempts by all the countries concerned.

Another trend is of growing competition among countries, as each nation seeks to sustain economic growth and national development in its own interest, and so breeds the desire to gain an edge over other countries in potential for growth. To defeat others in a race, it is essential to develop an understanding of the competition one faces in order to sharpen one's competitive edge.

It is in this context that regional studies assume an important dimension in higher education, and accordingly, universities must assume responsibility for producing specialists in this field.

(1) The initial step in activating regional studies is to produce specialists. Regional studies deserve inclusion in graduate programmes of h varying duration. Studying overseas is an alternative means of producing professionals.

At the initial stage, a combination of the two offers a viable approach.

(2) Encouragement and support should be give to the development of regional study institutes at the national level, to assist in policy studies related to national development.

Appendix I: KCUE Member Institutions

Name of Institution	Year Established	No. of Dept.	No. of Faculty Members	No. of Under-graduates	No. of Graduates	Address	Tel. No.
National Universities							
Kangweon National University	1947	73	379	12,516	852	Hyoja—dong, Chunchon CT, Kangwon—do, 200—701,	(0361) 53-9000
Kyungpook National University	1951	86	669	18,825	2,835	Sankyok—dong, Puk—gu, Taegu, 702—701, R.O.K.	(053) 955-5001~5
Gyeongsang National University	1948	65	448	11,830	820	Kajoa—dong, Chinju CT, Kyongnam, 600—300, R.O.K.	(0591) 54-8331~5
Busan National University	1946	77	683	18,876	2,578	Changion—dong, Kumjong—gu, Pusan, 609—735, R.O.K.	(051) 56-0171~88
Seoul National University	1946	106	1,298	20,189	6,872	Shinnim—dong, Kwanak—gu, Seoul, 151—742, R.O.K.	(02) 886-0101
Chonnam National University	1951	88	668	18,673	2,135	Yongbong—dong, Puk—gu, Kwangju, 500—757, R.O.K.	(062) 55-0011~18
Chonbuk National University	1951	85	572	16,391	1,746	Dukjin—dong, Chonju CT, Chonbuk, 560—756, R.O.K.	(0652) 70-2023~4
Jeju National University	1952	47	263	7,279	210	Ara—dong, Cheju CT, Cheju—do, 690—121, R.O.K.	(064) 23-6141
Chungnam National University	1952	79	534	16,619	1,894	Kung—dong, So—gu, Taejon CT, Chungnam, 302—764, R.O.K.	(042) 822-6121
Chungbuk National University	1951	67	395	12,158	785	Kaeshin—dong, Chongju, Chungbuk, 360—763, R.O.K.	(0431) 4-2131~9
Korea National University of Education	1984	19	92	2,080	240	Darak—ri, Kangnae—myeon, Cheongwon—gun, Chungbuk, 363-890, R.O.K.	(0431) 60-3114
National Colleges							
Kangreung National University	1979	24	97	3,315	48	Chipyen—dong, Kangreung CT, Kangwon—do, 210—320, R.O.K.	(0391) 42-7001~11

Name of Institution	Year Established	No. of Dept.	No. of Faculty Members	No. of Under-graduates	No. of Graduates	Address	Tel. No.
Kong Ju National Teachers College	1948	23	162	2,609	405	Shinkwan—dong, Kongju, CT, Chungnam, 314—110, R.O.K.	(0416) 53-2151~9
Gunsan National University	1965	29	126	3,864	60	Miryong—dong, Kunsan CT, Chonbuk 573—360, R.O.K.	(0654) 62-4171~3
Mogpo National College	1946	33	176	5,332	60	Torim—ri, Chonggae—myeon, Muan—gun, Chonnam, 534—830,	(0631) 72-8153~55
National Fisheries University of Pusan	1946	26	174	4,481	390	R.O.K. Taeyon—dong, Nam—gu, Pusan,	(051) 622-3951
Sun Cheon National College	1982	32	148	4,122	48	608—023, R.O.K. Maegok—dong, Sun—cheon,	(0661) 52-8131
Andong National College	1979	26	112	3,619	48	Chonnam, 550—070, R.O.K. Songchon—dong, Andong CT,	(0571) 55-1661~71
Yosu National Fisheries College	1917	11	62	770		Kyungbuk, 760—380, R.O.K. Kuk—dong, Yosu CT, Chonnam,	(0662) 2-7141~4
Changwon National College	1969	29	26	3,925	48	550—180, R.O.K. Toechon—dong, Changwon CT,	(0551) 83-2151~5
Korea National College of Physical Edocation	1977	3	54	840	29	Kyungnam, 641—240, R.O.K. Karak-dong, Songpa—gu,	(02) 418-1001~11
Korea Maritime University	1945	10	105	2,988	121	Seoul, 138—763, R.O.K. 418dong, Youngdo—gu, Pusan, 606—791, R.O.K.	(051) 49-0031~4
Public University							
Seoul City University	1918	123	27	3,974	335	Chonnong—dong, Tongdaemum—gu, Seoul, 130—743, R.O.K.	(02) 245-5303
Private Universities							
Konkuk University	1946	77	335	17,360	2,254	Mojin—dong, Songdong—gu, Seoul, 133—701, R.O.K.	(02) 445-0061~70
Kyonggi University	1963	46	159	10,020	370	Iui—ri, Suji—myon, Yongin—Kyonggi, 449—840, R.O.K.	(0335) 6-2171~9

Name of Institution	Year Established	No. of Dept.	No. of Faculty Members	No. of Under-graduates	No. of Graduates	Address	Tel. No.
Kyungnam University	1946	46	236	14,551	1,005	Wolyong—dong, Masan CT, Kyungnam, 630—260, R.O.K.	(0551) 2-8112~5
Kyungsung University	1955	43	217	9,321	466	Taeyon—dong, Nam—gu, Pusan, 608—020, R.O.K.	(051) 622-5331~8
Kyungwon University	1981	32	103	5,344	270	Pokjong—dong, Songnam CT, Kyonggi, 461—200, R.O.K.	(0342) 752-3220
Kyung Hee University	1949	68	478	18,619	2,717	Hoegi—dong, Tongdaemun—gu, Seoul, 131—701, R.O.K.	(02) 966-0904
Keimyung University	1954	62	391	15,966	1,037	Taemyong—dong, Nam—gu, Taegu, 705—037, R.O.K.	(053) 626-1321
Kwangwoon University	1964	17	69	4,475	293	Wolkye—dong, Nowon—gu, Seoul, 139—050, R.O.K.	(02) 918-1021~2
Korea University	1905	73	528	19,416	4,086	Anam—dong, Songbuk—gu, Seoul, 136—701, R.O.K.	(02) 94-2641~49
Kookmin University	1946	30	161	7,481	940	Chongrung—dong, Songbuk—gu, Seoul, 136—702, R.O.K.	(02) 914-3141~4
Dankook University	1947	78	358	18,264	1,877	Hannam—dong, Yongsan—gu, Seoul, 140—714, R.O.K.	(02) 797-0581~9
Daegu University	1950	59	263	15,068	648	Taemyong—dong, Nam—gu, Taegu, 705—030, R.O.K.	(053) 67-2081~7
Duksung Women's University	1950	23	93	5,028	109	Ssangmun—dong, Dobong—gu, Seoul, 132-030, R.O.K.	(02) 902-8121
Dongguk University	1906	73	335	17,113	1,831	Pil-dong, Chung-gu, Seoul, 100—715, R.O.K.	(02) 267-8131
Dongduck Women's University	1950	21	78	3,656	79	Hawolgok—dong, Songbuk—gu, Seoul, 136—132, R.O.K.	(02) 913-2001~10
Dong-A University	1946	64	450	19,208	1,300	Hadan—dong, Saha—gu, Pusan, 604—714, R.O.K.	

Name of Institution	Year Established	No. of Dept.	No. of Faculty Members	No. of Under-graduates	No. of Graduates	Address	Tel. No.
Dong Eui University	1976	36	173	8,697	176	Kaya—dong, Pusanjin—gu, Pusan, 614—010, R.O.K.	(051) 804-1500~14
Myong Ji University	1948	37	168	8,788	612	Nam—ri, Yongin—gu, Kyonggi, 120—728, R.O.K.	(0335) 32-4001~10
Sang Myung Women's University	1965	30	124	5,255	189	Hongji—dong, Chongno—gu, Seoul, 110—743, R.O.K.	(02) 737-0291~5
Sogang University	1960	20	168	6,182	1,385	Shinsu—dong, Mapo—gu, Seoul, 121—110, R.O.K.	(02) 715-0141~7
King Sejong University	1978	26	106	5,091	459	Kunja—dong, Songdong—gu, Seoul, 133—150, R.O.K.	(02) 467-5121
Sung Kyun Kwan University	1942	55	295	15,772	2,172	Myongryun—dong, Chongno—gu, Seoul, 110—745, R.O.K.	(02) 762-5021~39
Sungshin Women's University	1963	35	155	5,697	644	Tongson—dong, Songbuk—gu, Seoul, 136—742, R.O.K.	(02) 94-0124~8
Sook Myung Women's University	1938	38	153	6,191	970	Chongpa—dong, Yongsan—gu, Seoul, 140—132, R.O.K.	(02) 713-9391
Soongsil University	1997	26	137	7,378	878	Sangdo—dong, Dongssak—gu, Seoul, 156—743, R.O.K.	(02) 814-9611
Ajou University	1972	25	125	6,616	427	Wonchon—dong, Suwon CT, Kyonggi, 440—749, R.O.K.	(0331) 33-5141~50
Yonsei University	1985	69	787	19,652	5,269	Shinchon—dong, Sodaemun—gu, Seoul, 120—749, R.O.K.	(02) 392-0131,0161
Yeungnam University	1967	74	476	21,328	2,013	Taedong—dong, Kyungsan—eup, Kyungsan—gun, Kyungbuk, 713—800, R.O.K.	(053) 82-5111~9
Won Kwang University	1946	66	379	17,249	1,023	Shinyong—dong, Iri CT, Chonbuk, 570—749, R.O.K.	(0653) 52-2111,3111

Name of Institution	Year Established	No. of Dept.	No. of Faculty Members	No. of Under-graduates	No. of Graduates	Address	Tel. No.
University of Ulsan	1969	30	232	8,899	144	Mugo—dong, Ulsan CT, Kyongnam, 680—749, R.O.K.	(0522) 77-3101
Ewha Wom ns University	1886	55	401	15,189	2,371	Tahyon—dong, Sodaemun—gu, Seoul, 120—750, R.O.K.	(02) 362-6151
In Ha University	1954	52	302	16,535	1,451	Yonghyon—dong, Nam—gu, Inchon, 402-751, R.O.K.	(032) 862-0077
Jeon Ju University	1964	33	151	7,774	246	Hyoja—dong, Chonju CT, Chonbuk, 560—759, R.O.K.	(0652) 6-5011~20
Chosun University	1946	60	461	16,739	1,322	Sosok—dong, Dong—gu, Kwangju, 501—759, R.O.K.	(062) 232-8151~55
Chung Ang University	1918	73	460	19,266	2,550	Huksok—dong, Dongssak—gu, Seoul, 156—756, R.O.K.	(02) 813-3811~24
Cheongju University	1946	45	196	10,863	508	Naedok—dong, Chongju CT, Chungbuk, 360-764, R.O.K.	(0431) 54-2111
Hankook University of Foreign Studies	1954	58	279	13,516	1,642	Imun-dong, Tongdaemun-gu, Seoul, 131-791, R.O.K.	(02) 965-7001~25
Han Nam University	1956	35	178	8,923	387	Ojong—dong, Tong—gu, Taejon CT, Chungnam, 300—210, R.O.K.	(042) 623-7111~40
Hanyang University	1939	93	642	23,098	3,650	Haengdang—dong, Songdong—gu, Seoul, 133—791, R.O.K.	(02) 292-3111,2111
Hong Ik University	1946	30	161	8,805	1,311	Sangsu—dong, Mapo—gu, Seoul, 121—791, R.O.K.	(02) 322-0151
Hyosung Women's University	1952	51	223	8,824	380	Kumrak—dong, Hayang—eup, Kyungsan—gun, Kyungbuk, 713—900, R.O.K.	(0541) 52-8001
Private College							
Catholic College	1947	5	404	1,324	375	Haewha—dong, Chongno—gu, Seoul, 110—530, R.O.K.	(02) 762-2501

Name of Institution	Year Established	No. of Dept.	No. of Faculty Members	No. of Under-graduates	No. of Graduates	Address	Tel. No.
Methodist Theological Seminary	1964	3	24	986	261	Naengchon—dong, Sodaemun—gu, Seoul, 120—050, R.O.K.	(02) 363-4011~2
Kosin College	1970	12	102	1,856	236	Dongsam—dong, Youngdo—gu, Pusan, 606—080, R.O.K.	(051) 256-3181~2
Kwan Dong University	1954	24	124	6,238	80	Naegok—dong, Kangreung CT, Kangwon, 210—160, R.O.K.	(0391) 3-7721~6
Kwangju Catholic College	1965	1	13	311	20	Ssangchon—dong, So—gu, Kwangju, 502—260, R.O.K.	(062) 365-5111~3
International University	1955	10	22	2,204		Chongneung—dong, Songbuk—gu, Seoul, 136—104, R.O.K.	(02) 919-0411
Korea Christian College	1958	1	2	206		Deungchon—dong, Kangso—gu, Seoul, 157—010, R.O.K.	(02) 605-2989
Kumoh Institute of Technology	1979	9	53	3,303	76	Shinpyong—dong, Kumi CT, Kyungbuk, 730—070, R.O.K.	(0546) 461-0131~9
Taegu Catholic College	1981	1	16	204	30	Pongduk—dong, Nam—gu, Taegu, 750-020, R.O.K.	(053) 626-9581~5
Daegu Oriental Medical College	1980	8	66	1,866	112	Chomchon—dong, Kyongsan—gun, Kyungbuk, 713—800, R.O.K.	(053) 83-0551~4
Daejeon College	1980	18	88	3,666	48	Yongun—dong, Tong—gu, Taejon CT, Chungnam, 300—120, R.O.K.	(042) 252-0213~7
Dong-shin Enginnering College	1985	12	18	910		Taeho-dong, Naju CT, Chonnam, 520-180, R.O.K.	(0613) 33-2901~9
Mokwon Methodist College	1865	28	106	4,860	141	Mok-dong, Chung-gu, Taejon CT, Chungnam, 301—070, R.O.K.	(042) 252-9941~9
Pai Chai College	1981	20	61	2,924	36	Toma—dong, So—gu, Taejon CT, Chungnam, 302—162, R.O.K.	(042) 522-0335~9

Name of Institution	Year Established	No. of Dept.	No. of Faculty Members	No. of Under-graduates	No. of Graduates	Address	Tel. No.
Busan women's University	1969	29	109	4,550	24	Yonsan—dong, Tongnae—gu, Pusan, 607—080, R.O.K.	(051) 865-1001~18
Busan College of Foreign Studies	1981	19	75	4,896		Uam—dong, Nam—gu, Pusan, 608—060, R.O.K.	(051) 643-5111~8
Korea Union College	1962	10	54	1,698	44	Kongrung—dong, Nowon—gu, Seoul, 139—242, R.O.K.	(02) 972-3606~12
Sang Ji College	1974	25	103	4,814	86	Woosan—dong, Wonju CT, Kangwon, 220—130, R.O.K.	(0371) 42-1121~33
Seoul Theological Seminary	1959	4	32	1,322	186	Sosa—dong, Puchon CT, Kyonggi, 421—050, R.O.K.	(032) 62-0071~4
Seoul Women's University	1960	22	66	3,299	158	Kongreung—dong, Nowon—gu, Seoul, 139—240, R.O.K.	(02) 972-2031~5
Seowon University	1972	27	79	4,131		Mochung—dong, Chungju CT, Chungbuk, 360—140, R.O.K.	(0431) 62-8813~22
Sacred Heart College of Women	1964	17	83	3,634	90	Yokgok—dong, Puchon CT, Kyonggi, 421—100, R.O.K.	(032) 62-8251
Suwon Catholic College	1983	1	15	216	30	Wongrim—ri, Pongdam—myon, Hwasong—gun, Kyonggi, 445—890, R.O.K.	(0331) 34-1081~3
Suweon University	1981	34	91	5,270	140	Wangrim-ri, Pongdam-myon, Hwasong—gun, Kyonggi, 445—890, R.O.K.	(0331) 33-1402~6
Soonchunyang College	1978	19	218	4,343	99	Asan—gun, Chungnam, 337—880, R.O.K.	(0418) 42-4601~13
Asia United Theological College		2				Ashin—ri, Okchun—myon, Yangpyong-gun, Kyonggi, 476—830, R.O.K.	(0338) 72-5339~40

Name of Institution	Year Established	No. of Dept.	No. of Faculty Members	No. of Under-graduates	No. of Graduates	Address	Tel. No.
Inje College	1979	19	180	2,577	118	Kaejum—dong, Pusanjin—gu, Pusan, 614—110, R.O.K.	(051) 93-3421~9
Incheon University	1979	29	124	6,358	268	Towha—dong, Nam—gu, Inchon, 402—749, R.O.K.	(032) 74-5301~9
Presbyterian College and Theological Seminary	1961	3	32	825		Kwanjang—dong, Songdong—gu, Seoul, 133—210, R.O.K.	(02) 453-3101
Jeonju Woosuk University	1979	30	94	5,490	192	453—3101 Hujong—ri, Samrae—eup, Wanju—	(0652) 73-8001~3
Chong Shin College & Seminary	1901	6	38	1,366	230	gun, Chonbuk, 565—800, R.O.K. Sadang—dong, Dongjak—gu,	(02) 590-5101~9
Korea Baptist Theological College	1973	4	18	1,170	196	Seoul, 156—763, R.O.K. Mok—dong, Chung—gu, Taejon	(042) 253-6990
Pohang Institute of Science and Technology	1986	9	80	520	144	CT, Chungnam, 301—070, R.O.K. P.O. Box 125 Pohang CT,	(0562) 75-0990
Korea Tourism University	1988	5	·	250	·	Kyungbuk, 790—330, R.O.K. Hyohyen—dong, Kyongju CT,	(0561) 3-5558
Hankook Aviation College	1979	9	34	1,678	70	Kyungbuk, 780—210, R.O.K. Hwajon—ri, Hwajon—eup, Koyang—gun, Kyonggi, 411—910, R.O.K.	(02) 372-5771
Hallym College	1982	21	261	3,051	60	Okchon—dong, Chunchon CT, Kangwon, 200—010, R.O.K.	(0361) 53-5411~25
Hansung Univesity	1972	12	46	2,748	80	Samson—dong, Songbuk—gu, 136—042, R.O.K.	(02) 742-2201~10
Han Shin University	1940	11	54	2,130	268	Yangsan—ri, Osan—eup, Hwasong—gun, Kyonggi, 445—800, R.O.K.	(0339) 45-8480

Name of Institution	Year Established	No. of Dept.	No. of Faculty Members	No. of Under-graduates	No. of Graduates	Address	Tel. No.
Hoseo College	1980	20	89	3,624	48	Anso—dong, Chonan CT, Chungnam, 330—180, R.O.K.	(0417) 565-1812~9
Honam College	1981	20	89	4,314	48	Ssangchon—dong, So—gu, Kwangju, 502—260, R.O.K.	(062) 34-8211~4
National Teachers Colleges							
Kongju National Teachers College	1938	·	52	1,120	·	Ponghwang—dong, Kongju CT, Chungnam, 314—060, R.O.K.	(0416) 2-2661~5
Kwangju National Teachers College	1938	·	54	1,120	·	Punghyang—dong, Puk—gu, Kwangju, 500—090, R.O.K.	(062) 524-6001~14
Tae Gu National Teachers College	1949	·	62	1,600	·	Taemyong—dong, Nam—gu, 705—030, R.O.K.	(053) 66-4971~5
Pusan national Teachers College	1946	·	50	1,360	·	Koje—dong, Tongnae—gu, 607-070, R.O.K.	(051) 84-5055
Seoul National Teachers College	1946	·	80	2,080	·	Socho—dong, Kangnam—gu, Seoul, 137—070, R.O.K.	(02) 583-4091
Inchon National Teachers College	1962	·	75	1,600	·	Sungeui—dong, Nam—gu, Inchon, 402-010, R.O.K.	(032) 883-5151~4
Jeon Ju National Teachers College	1936	·	40	720	·	Dongsohak—dong, Chonju CT, Chonbuk, 560—120, R.O.K.	(0652) 6-0051~5
Che Ju National Teachers College	1953	·	15	240	·	Hwabuk—dong, Cheju CT, 690 Cheju, 690—060, R.O.K.	(064) 53-5691~3
Jinju National Teachers College	1940	·	48	1,360	·	Shinan—dong, Chinju CT, Kyungnam, 660—100, R.O.K.	(0431) 4-8151
Cheong Ju National Teachers College	1941	·	37	720	·	Sugok—dong, Chongju CT, Chungbuk, 360—150, R.O.K.	(0591) 2-4206~9
Chuncheon National Teachers College	1939	·	36	1,356	·	Soksa—dong, Chunchon CT, Kangwon, 200—180, R.O.K.	(0361) 2-5691

Appendix II: Supplementary Reading

More information about Korean higher education can be found in the following references, from which much of the content of this publication was drained.

Ministry of Education, Education in Korea 1987-88 : An official government publication for the general information about the Korean educational system and current status along with a brief introduction to Korea.

Korea Research Foundation, Study in Korea 1988-89 : A well-condensed guide to Korean higher education system and higher education institutions as well as an information source for foreign students who want to continue their study in Korean higher education institutions.

Korean Council for University Education, A Study on Higher Education in Korea 1986 : A research report on present conditions of Korean higher education also containing much statistical data.

Chong-chol Kim, Education and Development , Seoul : Seoul National University Press, 1985 : Collections of articles and essays on Korean Education written by the author who is an eminent scholar in Korean higher education also containing well organized section on Korean higher education.

Philip J. Gannon, Korea ; A Study of the Educational System of the Republic of Korea and a Guide to the Academic Placement of Students in Educational Institutions of the United States : A foreigner's investigation in to the history and development of the Korean educational system, with advice to admission officers to educational institutions in the United States.

J.E. Jayasuriya, Education in Korea : a Third World Success Story , Seoul : Korea National Commission for Unesco, 1984 : A Unesco report prepared to introduce Korean experience in education to the educational planners and administrators in other Third World countries and to provide teachers of comparative education with an account of Korean education.

Korean Council for University Education, University Finance in Asian Countries ,
1986 : A proceeding of the KCUE international seminar on university finance

in Asian countries : Phillipines, Japan, Republic of China, India and Korea. The aims of the seminar were to share experiences and ideas on finance in higher education in Asia, to identify and analyze common financial problems, and to formulate appropriate strategies and alternatives for better finance.

The Presidential Commission for Education Reform, Korean Education Reform Toward the 21st Century , 1987 : The final report of the Presidential Commission for Educational Reform worked for three years (1985-1987) to establish educational policy directions and tasks for Korean Education Reform toward the 21st Century.

Korean Council for University Education, Current Issues in University Education ,
1987 : An international seminar proceeding of the KCUE on the current issues in university education of Korea and Japan. It contains discussions on social functions of university, student guidance, teaching function and curriculum, teaching methods and educational technology, and research functions of the university in Korea and Japan.